DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 045 257 RC 004 902

AUTHOR	Elliott, John G.
TITLE	Educational and Occupational Aspirations and Expectations: A Comparative Study of Indian and Non-Indian Youth.
INSTITUTION	Saint Francis Xavier Univ., Antigonish, Nova Scotia (Canada).
PUB DATE	Mar 70
NOTE	163p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.75 HC-$8.25
DESCRIPTORS	*Academic Aspiration, *American Indians, Caucasians, *Cross Cultural Studies, Education, *Occupational Aspiration, Parents, Perception, *Self Concept, Social Attitudes, Socioeconomic Status, Youth
IDENTIFIERS	*Nova Scotia

ABSTRACT

The cross-cultural study was conducted under the assumption that intelligence is a learned phenomenon; therefore, if ethnic differences exist, they are not due to differences in intelligence but are due to differences in individual attitudes and social systems. The study was intended to explain educational and occupational aspirations and expectations of Indian and non-Indian students from grade 6 and beyond. The questionnaire method was utilized to gather data from a total of 1,041 students, of which 223 were Indians and 818 were non-Indians. The student population represented 2 types of schools in Nova Scotia: federal and provincial. The 6 sets of data collected were (1) educational and occupational aspirations and expectations, (2) students' self-ratings and perceptions of school-related variables, (3) parents' perceptions of their children as seen by the students, (4) students' ratings of parents in regard to occupation, (5) students' self-ratings of ability for chosen occupations, and (6) significant people in the students' lives. The overall finding was that there were many differences to more or lesser degrees between Indians and non-Indians. A full discussion of the study is included, along with tables of pertinent statistics. (FL)

ED045257

RECEIVED
DEC 30 1970
NMSU
E.R.I.C.

EDUCATIONAL AND OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF INDIAN AND NON-INDIAN YOUTH

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

by

John G. Elliott, Ph.D.

March, 1970

Extension Department
St. Francis Xavier University
Antigonish, Nova Scotia

RC004902

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The purpose of the present study was to investigate youth. Obviously, by the very methods used to gather the data, many people were involved.

I would certainly not have gathered the data with so much efficiency if it had not been for the excellent co-operation of the school Superintendents, Principals and Teachers involved.

I wish also to thank Mr. Paul Jobe, who at the time the data were gathered was Director of the Indian Community Development Project for St. Francis Xavier University. My gratitude also goes to Liz Tower, Mike Brosseau and Eleanor MacNeil for their help in gathering the data. Mr. Leonard Leblanc of the Indian Affairs Department was also very helpful with background information.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Acknowledgments ii

List of Tables v

Introduction 1

Chapter

I Research Design 6

Geographical Area 6
Choice of Schools 6
Pretesting and Administration of Instrument . . 6
Control Variables 8
Data Handling 9
Demographic Data 9

II Educational Aspirations and Expectations . . . 10

Part A Educational Aspirations 10
Aspirations versus Expectations 10
Aspirations and the Perceptions of Parents . . 13
Aspirations and Students' School Perceptions. . 21

Part B Occupational Expectations 24
Occupations and Students' Perceptions 24
Occupational Expectations and Perceptions of Parents 29
Occupations, Education, and Parents' Employment 32
Educational Aspirations and Occupational Expectations 36
Summary 40

III Students' Self Rating of School Ability 47

School Ability and Educational Correlates . . . 47
School Ability and Occupational Correlates . . 53
Summary 58

IV Correlates of Perception of Parents 60

Parental Aspirations. 60
Parental Interest in the Education of their Children 65
Summary 71

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Cont'd)

Page

V Parents and Teachers as Significant Others . . . 74

Significant Others and Educational Correlates . . 75
Significant Others and Correlates of the Perception of Parents 77
Significant Others and Occupational Correlates. . 83
Significant Others and Parental Correlates. . . . 87
Significant Others and Grade Point Average . . . 90
Summary 96

VI Parents' Employment 103

Parents' Employment and Significant Others . . . 103
Parents' Employment and Educational Correlates. . 104
Parents' Employment and Correlates of Occupation. 108
Summary 110

VII Discussion and Implications 112

Implications:

1. The Role of Community Development Workers and Adult Educators 134
2. Parental Involvement 134
3. Employment for Parents 136
4. Teacher and School Involvement 136
5. Significant Others 137
6. Federal Verus Provincial Schools 138
7. Research Implications 139

Appendix A. Tables 1A, 2A. 141

Appendix B. Questionnaire 143

LIST OF TABLES

Table | Page
1. Relationship between educational aspirations and expectations 11
2. Students' educational aspirations in relation to parents' rating of educational aspirations . . . 14
3. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' rating of school ability 16
4. The relationship between educational aspirations and parents' rating of ability to complete college 18
5. The relationship between educational aspirations and the degree to which parents are informed about school work 20
6. Relationship between educational aspirations and student perception of the importance of good grades 21
7. Relationship between educational aspirations and student's ability in relation to class students 23
8. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived ability for chosen job 25
9. Occupational expectations in relation to persons to whom help in the chosen occupation can be solicited 26
10. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived encouragement from parents regarding occupational choice 28
11. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived parents' educational aspirations 29
12. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived parents' rating of ability to complete college . . 31
13. Occupational expectations in relation to parents' employment 32

Table Page

14. Occupational expectations in relation to parents' occupational status 34

15. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' employment 35

16. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' occupational status 36

17. Educational aspirations in relation to occupational choice 37

18. Students' rating of their school ability (relative to class) in relation to their rating of the importance of good grades 48

19. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and parents' rating of ability to complete college 50

20. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and the degree to which parents are informed 52

21. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and their rating of ability for chosen job 54

22. Relationship between students ratings of school ability and parental encouragement regarding chosen job 56

23. Relationship between parents' educational aspirations and students' ability in school as compared to the class 60

24. Relationship between parents' educational aspirations and the degree to which parents are informed about school matters 62

25. Parents' educational aspirations in relation to perceived ability for chosen occupation 64

26. Parents' educational aspirations in relation to parental encouragement regarding chosen occupation 64

27. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to expected sources of help regarding choice of occupation 65

Table Page

28. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to the degree of parental encouragement regarding choice of occupation 67

29. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to ability for chosen occupation. 68

30. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and students' educational aspirations 75

31. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the importance of getting good grades 77

32. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parental educational aspirations. . 78

33. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the degree to which parents are informed about school 79

34. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' rating of ability to complete college 81

35. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' rating of school ability . 82

36. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and occupational expectations 83

37. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and perceived ability for chosen occupation 85

38. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the degree to which students have made up their minds about occupational choice 86

39. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and sources of expected help regarding choice of occupation 87

40. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parental encouragement regarding occupational choice 89

Table Page

41. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others on grade point average 91

42. The relationship between parents as significant others and students' rating of school ability in relation to class on grade point average. 93

43. The relationship between parents and significant others and parents' rating of school ability on grade point average 95

44. The relationship between parents' employment and parents as significant others 104

45. The relationship between parents' employment and the student's ability in relation to class friends 105

46. The relationship between parents' employment and parents' educational aspirations 106

47. The relationship between parents' employment and the degree to which parents are informed 107

48. The relationship between parents' employment and parental encouragement regarding occupational choice 108

49. The relationship between parents' employment and ability for occupation of choice 109

APPENDIX A

List of Tables

1A. Age and School Grade composition. 142

2A. Sex Composition of the two samples. 142

INTRODUCTION

The education of children is not only a legal obligation but also a social one. The legal side says that children must go to school until the age of sixteen. If children stay in school beyond this age, they do so because of social reasons. The present study attempts to look at or investigate some of these social reasons. The word "some" social reasons is used because within any study one cannot look at all reasons. Research begins with a problem. In trying to find answers to that problem, it is necessary to take a chunk of the social world in an attempt to impose some structure on it. On the other hand, what chunk is taken will depend largely on the interest and academic background of the researcher. The present study is only one way of looking at the problem.

The word "problem" is used rather than a word like "issue" because it denotes and connotes that there is something "out there" that requires a solution. No one would deny that among our youth today that a problem exists in the area of education. The whole purpose of research is to investigate problems, not only to describe what is going on but also to explain what is going on. It is one thing to say or describe that such and such a percentage drop out of school every year but it is another thing to say why. It is one thing to describe the failure rate as being a certain percentage but it is another to explain why the failure rate occurs.

The present study attempts, therefore, to not only describe but also to explain what is going on. It is only through both description and explanation that programs can eventually be constructed to create social change.

The present study also has an added feature -- it is comparative in approach. To say that Indians are different is one thing but to say how they are different and to what extent is another.

No attempt has been made to delve into theoretical issues. Because of the wide range of skills available in the intended audience, the social-psychological jargon has been kept to a minimum. The more technical aspects will be for other reports and journals.

The research is classified as perceptual, i.e., what one sees as real in his environment. The basic premise is that if a person perceives something real in his world, it is real in its consequences. For example, if a child perceives himself as not being very bright (whether it's true or not from another person's view), it can have consequences on his behavior in school.

One final qualification must be made. No intelligence tests (e.g. I.Q. tests) were taken for the study. Consequently, in no place neither assumptions nor inferences are made that one group is more or less intelligent than the other.

Intelligence is regarded by the present researcher as a learned phenomenon. Therefore, if differences exist, they are not due to differences in intelligence but due to differences in individual attitudes and social systems.

The study is to explain education and occupational aspirations and expectations. To explain aspirations requires another concept or variable. Thus, the format of the study, first of all, deals with educational and occupational aspirations. For example, if educational aspirations are represented by the letter A, then A can be correlated to other variables or concepts - B, C, and D. However, other relationships can also be looked at as well. For instance, B can also be correlated to C and D, and C can be correlated to D.

✓ The questionnaire could be divided into different sets. One set determined the educational and occupational aspirations and expectations. The second set asked questions in regard to students' self ratings and perceptions of school's related variables. For example, rating themselves on school ability, do they see grades (i.e. marks or grade point average) as important.

The third set investigated the perception of parents. Specifically, students were asked to rate themselves (e.g. on ability or aspiration) as they thought their parents would rate them. Thus, the measures were not the actual parents' ratings.

The fourth set dealt with rating of parents in regard to occupation, but seen again from the point of view of the student.

The fifth set was a self rating in regard to their occupations, e.g. self rating of ability for chosen occupation.

The last set was to elicit from the students a list of their significant others -- those people who were important to them.

The format of the paper was divided into seven chapters.

The first chapter deals with the research design.

The second chapter investigates educational aspirations and occupations in relation to each other and to the students' perception of themselves and of their parents.

Chapter 4 looks at parental aspirations in regard to their children.

Chapter 5 is the theoretical strongpoint of the study -- to investigate the strength of significant others in predicting students' attitudes and behaviours.

In Chapter 6, some selected correlates of parents' employment are investigated.

Each chapter ends with a summary. The summary attempts to give a concise and clear picture of the findings for the particular chapter. The summary is written so that those people who do not like to get lost in mountains of figures can get a clear and complete picture of what is happening.

No attempt has been made to draw inferences or implications from every table presented. Individual readers may wish to do this on their own. In some cases, to draw implications from the individual table is not only difficult but unnecessary. It is what the table (or more specifically, the relationship) contributes to the whole picture that is more important. Thus the final chapter deals with an overview of the previous chapters and attempts to bring together all the findings so as to be able to make generalizations about what is going on and also to make implications for future research, as well as any action programs based on the results.

The study is directed to a wide audience and as such possibly contains more information than is necessary for a single study. Because the approach includes a great deal of information, some may not be relevant to a particular group while relevant to others. For instance, educators, parents, community development workers, the Department of Indian Affairs may only be interested in selected parts of the study.

Because the present study is directed to a heterogeneous audience, it is planned that another study will be written in the future that is more precise in the sense that other methods of analysis will be used, e.g. correlation statistics. Such methods would allow the use of several variables being used at the same time and still arrive at a meaningful answer.

CHAPTER I

RESEARCH DESIGN

Geographical area. The study was conducted in the geographical area covered by the conditions of the grant between the Department of Indian Affairs and the Saint Francis Xavier Extension Department Indian Project. The area included all five Reserves on Cape Breton plus those areas serving the Afton and Pictou Landing Reserves.

The choice of schools. There were two types of school involved in the study -- Federal (Reserve) and Provincial. Arrangements were made in November of 1968 with school principals and superintendents to administer the questionnaire in the class. All schools, both Federal and Provincial, having students from Grade six onward were included in the sample. There were fifteen schools involved. The questionnaire was administered only to those classes having Indians. There were 52 such classes; however, only 46 were used. The six classes that were dropped was due to the fact that there was only one Indian in the class or on the day of administering the questionnaire, the Indian student(s) was(were) absent.

Pretesting and administration of Instrument. The instrument was self administered. The instrument was checked for wording by the researcher and a grade six English teacher (who also had a number of years experience teaching Indians). The wording of the instrument was geared for a grade six level. A pretest was then conducted by the researcher on a grade six class. Any difficulties were noted and changed accordingly. The Saint Francis Xavier Indian Project Staff were instructed in the method of administering the instrument.

Arrangements were made with each school for the collection of data. On the designated day, the instrument was administered at one time to all classes, or consecutively. The reason for this procedure was to reduce or eliminate any interaction on the part of the students that could have introduced some error by creating an awareness that a questionnaire was going to be administered.

To create a spontaneous situation, (and thus reduce error), arrangements had also been made with each school principal that the teachers not be notified of the project until just a few hours or the day before the administration. To also reduce possible error, the teacher was not present in the classroom at the time as the mere presence of the teacher potentially could have biased the answers to some questions.

The students were not given too much information. They were told that the study involved educational and occupational aspirations and that they were not the only ones in the study -- that fifteen schools and over 1,000 other students were involved.

The Indians and non-Indians were in no cases separated in the Provincial schools and absolutely no mention was made that the study was essentially an Indian study.

The Saint Francis Xavier Indian Project staff was known by many of the Indians in the classes. Therefore, the staff was instructed to say that the project staff had been asked by the University -- without any mention of the Extension Department.

Control Variables

Such control variables as sex, age, school systems were not used. As the study was comparative in nature, these variables would tend to equalize.

The main control variable on all data was ethnic -- Indians versus non-Indian. To have controlled on several variables would have created a situation in which some cells would have had very low frequencies. Furthermore, and perhaps more important, was that as the number of control variables increased, the difficulty of interpretation would have increased also. This is particularly so when data are presented in percentage form as in the present case.

One variable which may have an effect and was not controlled for in the present study was the degree of industrialization within an area. Specifically, students in schools lying inside or outside of an industrial area may have effects on other variables such as aspirations regarding education and occupations.

Data Handling

The instrument was precoded for computer cards. Column numbers were placed on the right hand side of the page. All codes were then marked on the instrument and card punching was done directly from the instrument. The data were reported in such a fashion as to make interpretation as simple as possible. For example, levels of educational aspirations ranged from elementary school to postgraduate work. However, the tables are shown as below college or college level. Additionaly, persons who did not respond to a question were dropped from the analysis. However, in certain cases when the "no response" or the "don't know" became a meaningful category, they were retained in the analyses.

Demographic Data

The total number of students was 1,041 which broke down to 223 Indians and 818 non-Indians. Of the 223 Indians, a total of 99 were in Federal schools and 124 in Provincial schools.

The sex composition was 54 percent males and 46 percent females for non-Indians and 45 and 55 percent respectively for Indians. Sex composition is thus just opposite for the two groups (Table in Appendix A).

The ages for the two groups were fairly close together. The only difference of any magnitude is in the eleven year old bracket where the percentages are 4.5 for Indians and 8.4 for non-Indians. (Table in Appendix A). The grade composition is not in equal proportions but this was due to the method used for selecting the classes more than anything else.

CHAPTER II

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

PART A

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

Aspirations Versus Expectations

The concept of aspiration is different from that of expectation because an aspiration is goal oriented whereas an expectation need not be. The expectation takes into consideration the social situation in which an individual finds himself and the resources available to him.

Expectations need not be lower than aspirations. For example, a boy may want to be a hockey player (his aspiration) but expects he will become a doctor (expectation). For such a case his parents may be applying influence to carry on a family tradition. Generally, however, aspirations would be higher than expectations. For one thing the higher the aspiration the less number of jobs are open. For example, a society can only absorb or have need for so many doctors, lawyers, scientists, for judges or prime ministers. The same rationale would also hold for educational aspirations and expectations.

Table 1 shows the relationship between expectations and aspirations.

Table 1. Relationship between educational aspirations and expectations

Aspirations:	Below College Level		College Level		Total Sample	
Expectation	I.* %	NI.** %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Below College Level	52	35	15	22	68	57
College Level	5	--	28	42	32	43
Total Sample %	57	36	43	64	100	100
Total No. of Cases	127	291	95	525	223	818

* I. - refers to Indian Sample.

**NI. - refers to Non-Indian Sample.

For the non-Indians, 35 percent not only aspired, but also expected an education below college whereas for Indians the figure was 52 percent. In other words, a greater number of Indians not only aspired, but also expected a level of education below the college level than did non-Indians. For Indians aspiring to below college level education, five percent of the Indians expected a college level education while the figure was less than one percent for the non-Indians. Specifically, the expectations for Indians was higher than for non-Indians.

Students aspiring to a college level education, the figures showed that more non-Indians (22 percent) than Indians (15 percent) expected an education below college level. Thus, Indians' expectations were higher than for the non-Indians for this category.

The most significant difference in the table was in the next category where 42 percent of the non-Indians not only aspired, but expected an education at the college level. The figure for Indians was 28 percent.

The marginal percentages showed that for non-Indians 36 percent had aspirations below the college level and thus 64 percent aspired to an educational attainment of college level. For Indians, 57 percent aspired to an education below college level while only 43 percent aspired to a college level education. The same pattern existed with educational expectations.

For Indians 68 percent expected to achieve an education below college while the figure was 57 percent for the non-Indians. Equally, more non-Indians expected to achieve a college level education (43 percent) than Indians (32 percent). Therefore, the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians in aspirations and expectations.

Aspirations and the Perceptions of Parents

The perception of parents was viewed from the point of view of the student. That is, the student was asked how he thought his parents saw him (the student) in relation to certain concepts.

Only the relationship to educational aspirations will be discussed. The relationships to educational expectations were similar to the aspirations, at least in ghe general trends that appear.

The tables have been laid out in such a way that the variable to be explained is on the side of the table and the explanatory variable is across the top of the table. Said in another way, the explained variable (or concept) is the dependent variable and the explanatory variable is the independent variable. In the present section, educational aspirations and occupational expectations are the variables we wish to explain -- the dependent variables. If we ask the question of why do some students aspire to a college level education, then some other concept or variable is required to explain the relationship. Therefore, we might say that given a high level of parental encouragement (independent variable) leads to (explains) high educational aspiration (dependent variable).

Table 2 has been collapsed to show the educational aspirations of parents as perceived by the students. The general relationship should be that the higher the educational aspirations of the parents, the higher the aspirations of the students. The figures revealed this trend; however, there were differences between the Indians and non-Indians.

Table 2. Students' educational aspirations in relation to parents' rating of educational aspirations (as perceived by the students)

Perception of Parents' Aspirations

Students' aspirations	Below College I. %	Below College NI. %	College Level I. %	College Level NI. %
Below college	91	81	29	15
College level	9	19	71	85
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	100	256	123	561
Total Sample %	45	32	55	68

Parents' educational aspirations showed that at the "below college" level there was a high correspondence with the students' educational aspirations. That is, if the parents' aspirations were below the college level, then the students' aspirations were also below the college level.

Specifically, for parents' aspirations at the "below college" level, 91 percent of the Indians and 81 percent of the non-Indians aspired to a "below college" level education while 9 percent of the Indians and 19 percent of the non-Indians aspired to a college level education. Thus, even though there was high correspondence between parents' aspirations "below college" and educational aspirations, more non-Indians aspired to a college level education than did Indians. Specifically, if an Indian parent aspired to a "below college" level for their child, the child himself also aspired to a "below college" level. And the figures show that 91 percent did so. On the other hand, if a non-Indian parent aspired to a "below college" level education, 81 percent of the students also aspired to a below college level. These figures indicate that for non-Indians a greater proportion had aspirations that were higher than their parents', while for Indians, those having aspirations higher than their parents was not as great as for non-Indians -- 9 and 19 percent respectively.

For parents' aspirations at the "college level", the data showed that again there was high correspondence. Non-Indians, 85 percent, aspired to a college level education while the figure was 71 percent for the Indians.

Thus, the relationship is clear -- given parents' aspirations were low, students' aspirations were low, and given parents' aspirations were high, students' aspirations were high. However, the data showed a lag for the Indians behind the non-Indians.

The same pattern existed for parents' educational expectations (no table shown).

The next relationship to educational aspirations is that of perceived parents' rating of school ability -- as shown in Table 3. The "below college" level of aspiration was broken down into two categories: (1) up to high school graduation and (2) secretarial or trade school.

Table 3. Students' educational aspirations in relation to parents' rating of school ability (as perceived by the students)

	Parents' Rating of School Ability					
	Above Average		Average		Below Average	
Aspirations:	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Up to High School Graduation	39	13	35	24	50	36
Secretarial or Trade School	14	11	19	14	25	24
College level	47	76	46	62	25	40
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	90	281	101	432	32	104
Total Sample %	40	34	45	53	15	13

For school ability "above average", the figures were in favour of the non-Indians. A total of 76 percent of the non-Indians aspired to a college level education while the percentage was 47 percent for Indians. Slightly more Indians, 14 percent, wished to go to secretarial or trade school. In the above average category for ability, it was noteworthy that 39 percent of the Indians only aspired to a high school education while the figure for non-Indians was 13 percent.

The same pattern existed between "average" school ability and aspirations.

In the "below average" ability category, non-Indians' aspirations were higher for the college level than Indians, 40 percent and 25 percent respectively. In the secretarial and trade school category they were about even. However, for those rating "below average" ability, more Indians than non-Indians aspired to a high school level education. Thus overall, non-Indians' aspirations in relation to ability were higher than Indians.

The marginal totals were also revealing. Of the total Indians sample, 40 percent perceived their parents as rating them above average while the figure for non-Indians was 34 percent. The marginal totals for the average and below average categories were in favour of the non-Indians.

The 40 percent marginal figure (as a percentage of the total Indian sample) for above average category was noteworthy because even though such a large percentage saw their parents rating them high on ability, their aspirations did not correspond.

Thus, some other explanation must be sought. Other relationships will be discussed later.

One question the students were asked was to rate their ability to complete college perceived from their parents' position, Table 4.

In the "yes definitely or perhaps" category, the Indians were split somewhat evenly -- 48 percent aspiring to below college education and 52 percent to a college level education. For the non-Indians on the other hand, 76 percent aspired to a college level education while only 24 percent aspired to a below college level.

Table 4. The relationship between educational aspirations and parents' rating of ability to complete college (as perceived by the students)

	Parents' Rating to Complete College					
	Yes definitely or perhaps		Not sure either way		Perhaps not or definitely not	
Aspirations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Below College	48	24	68	57	88	77
College Level	52	76	32	43	12	23
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	138	571	68	160	17	86
Total Sample %	62	70	30	20	8	10

For the category of "not sure either way", the tendency was that the below college level had a higher frequency of cases than the college level for both samples. However, the frequency of Indians choosing a below college level aspiration (68 percent) was higher than for non-Indians (57 percent). Thus, more non-Indians chose a college level aspiration (43 percent) than Indians, 32 percent, in this category.

In the "perhaps or definitely not" category, more Indians than non-Indians aspired to a below college level education, 77 and 88 percent respectively. Thus, more non-Indians, 23 percent, than Indians, 12 percent, aspired to a college level education, even though they perceived parents' rating their ability to complete college as low.

Table 5 shows the relationship between aspirations and the degree to which parents are informed. The general relationship would be that the more parents like to talk about school, the higher the aspiration. This was generally the relationship that obtained in the table, but again with differences between the two samples. For non-Indians in the category of "always like to talk", 72 percent aspired to a college level education and 28 percent to a below college level education.

For Indians, on the other hand, the figures were split somewhat evenly with 49 percent below college and 51 percent at the college level of aspiration. The figure of 49 percent represented a high percentage in light of the general relationship. Specifically, the percentage was high considering that these subjects perceived their parents as always liking to talk, and yet had low educational aspirations.

Table 5. The relationship between educational aspirations and the degree to which parents are informed about school work (as perceived by the students)

	Informed Parents					
	Always like to Talk		Talk Some		Talk Seldom or Doesn't Matter	
Aspirations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Below College	49	28	61	38	60	53
College Level	51	72	39	62	40	47
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	71	357	112	348	40	112
Total Sample	32	43	50	42	18	15

The results were of the same pattern in the "talk some" category. Like the 49 percent figure discussed above, 61 percent of the Indians in the category of "talk some" had low aspirations. Again, the relationship was out of line with what would be predicted. The figures for the non-Indians, 38 percent and 62 percent, were in the right direction.

In the "doesn't matter" category, the direction was still in favour of the non Indians in that in spite of low communication with parents, their aspirations were still higher -- 47 percent for non Indians, 40 percent for Indians, aspiring to a college level education.

Aspirations and Students' School Perceptions

The students were asked to indicate the importance of getting good grades in school (i.e. 60 percent or better). Table 6 represents the relationship between aspirations and good grades. For the category of "very important", 54 percent of the Indians aspired to a below college level education while the figure for non-Indians was 30 percent. Conversely, 70 percent of the non-Indians aspired to a college level education while the figure was 46 percent for the Indians.

Table 6. Relationship between educational aspirations and students' perception of importance of good grades

	Importance of Grades					
	Very Important		Important		Not particularly or do not matter	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Aspirations						
Below College	54	30	60	44	58	49
College Level	46	70	40	56	42	51
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	107	499	90	272	26	45
Total Sample %	48	61	40	33	12	6

For the category of "important", again a larger number of Indians, 60 percent, aspired to a below college level of education than non-Indians, 44 percent.

For those indicating that grades were "not particularly important or don't matter", a greater proportion of Indians, 58 percent, also aspired to a below college level education while the non-Indians were somewhat split with 49 percent to a"below college" and 51 percent to a "college level" education.

In summary, the relationship between the importance of grades and aspirations should be that the greater the importance given to grades, the greater the aspirations. The relationship for non-Indians in the very important categories held up, but did not hold for the Indians. Specifically, for Indians even though they had said that grades were important, their aspirations were below the college level. In the "not particularly important" category, the Indians followed the predicted direction, i.e. grades not being particularly important lead to low aspirations. On the other hand, for non-Indians, the percentages were just about even.

The relationship between educational aspirations and the students' perceived ability in relation to his classmates is shown in Table 7. Among those indicating they were the "best or above average", 51 percent of the Indians had aspirations below college while the figure was 24 percent for non-Indians. Thus, a greater proportion of non-Indians, 76 percent, aspired to a college level of education than did Indians, 49 percent. The same pattern obtained for those indicating an average ability.

In the "below average or poorest" category, 72 percent of the Indians aspired to a below college level while the figure for non-Indians was 64 percent. Therefore, the category followed what would be predicted, i.e., the lower the perceived ability, the lower the aspirations. However, the relationship was more pronounced for Indians than for non-Indians.

Table 7. Relationship between educational aspirations and students' ability in relation to class students

	Ability in Relation to Class					
	The Best or Above Average		Average		Below Average or Poorest	
Aspirations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Below College	51	24	54	36	72	64
College Level	49	76	46	64	28	36
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	198	120	543	46	77
Total Sample %	25	24	54	67	21	9

PART B

OCCUPATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Occupations and Students' Perceptions

The side marginals for Table 8 give the collapsed breakdowns of occupational choices.* High occupational expectations included professional, proprietors, managers, and officials (large concerns), and semi-professionals. The breakdown was 52 percent Indians versus 55 percent non-Indians expecting professional jobs. The percents were based on the number of students answering the question. The medium range of occupations included: proprietors, managers, and officials (small concerns), clerical and sales, and skilled labour. A greater percentage of Indians fell into this category -- 29 percent as opposed to 19 percent for non-Indians. The low occupational category comprised: farmer, semi-skilled and unskilled. The Indians represented 19 percent and non-Indians 16 percent.

Overall, 50 percent of the total Indian sample did not respond, while 36 percent of the total non-Indian sample did not respond (not shown in Table).

Table 8 also gives the relationship of occupational expectations to perceived ability for the chosen job. In the "very much or above average" category, 54 percent of the Indians and 70 percent of the non-Indians expected high occupational attainment.

---

* The method used for occupational categories was based on the scale developed by Peter C. Pineo and John Porter, "Occupational prestige in Canada", The Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology, Vol. 4, No. 1, 1967, ps. 24-40.

A total of 30 percent of the Indians expected occupations in the medium range while the figure was 13 percent for the non-Indians. In the low range, the figures were fairly even.

In the average category, 60 percent of the non-Indians who said they were average chose high occupations whereas the figure was 46 percent for Indians.

Table 8. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived ability for chosen job

	Ability for Chosen Job							
	Very Much or Above Average		Average		Below or Much Below Average		TOTALS	
Occupational Expectations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
High	54	70	46	60	76	64	52	65
Medium	30	13	32	25	18	16	29	19
Low	16	17	22	15	6	20	19	16
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	37	223	46	248	17	44		
Total Sample %	17	27	21	30	8	5		

The "below average" category showed a different picture. The relationship which should have obtained was that the less perceived ability, the lower the job expectation. However, this was not what appeared for either sample as the figures were in reverse of what would have been predicted. For Indians, 76 percent as opposed to 64 percent for non-Indians, expected high educational attainment even though their perceived ability was below average.

The students were asked to whom they could expect help in getting started in their chosen job. The relationship between occupations and expected sources of help is shown in Table 9. For students having mentioned parents or guardians as sources of help, the figures showed that 73 percent of the non-Indians had high occupational expectations whereas for Indians it was only 48 percent. At the medium or low levels of expectations, the figures were in favour of the Indians.

Table 9. Occupational expectations in relation to persons to whom help in the chosen occupation can be solicited

Can Expect Help From:

Occupational Expectations	Parents or Guardian		Relatives or Friends		Some Other Person or No One		Don't Know	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
High	48	73	76	52	45	57	47	55
Medium	33	15	6	26	50	18	16	29
Low	19	12	18	22	5	25	37	16
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	52	299	17	94	20	60	19	69
Total Sample %	23	37	8	11	9	7	9	8

For the category of relatives or friends, Indians surpassed the non-Indians, 76 and 52 percent respectively, in choosing high prestige occupations. In the medium range and the low range, the figures divided 6 and 18 percent for the Indians and 26 and 22 for the non-Indians respectively.

In the "some other person or no one" category, 57 percent of the non-Indians and 45 percent of the Indians chose high occupations. However, 50 percent of the Indians and 18 percent of the non-Indians chose occupations in the medium range. For the non-Indians 25 percent, and 5 percent of the Indians chose jobs in the low range. Thus, in the "some other person or no one" category, the occupations chosen shift a great deal between the two samples in choice of occupation.

In the "don't know" category, more non-Indians, 55 percent, than Indians, 47 percent, chose the high range of occupations. The same held true for the medium range. However, 16 percent of the non-Indians versus 37 percent of the Indians looked to jobs in the low range.

Thus, in summary, if parents are mentioned, the high range of occupations were chosen but in favour of the non-Indians. This also held in the "some other person or no one" category and the "don't know" category. The "relatives or friends" category favoured the Indians in relation to choice of high occupations.

Table 10 relates occupations with parental encouragement regarding occupational choice. For those students whose parents have encouraged them, 68 percent of the non-Indians and 54 percent of the Indians chose high occupations. Conversely, for Indians a higher proportion chose medium or low occupations than non-Indians.

Table 10. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived encouragement from parents regarding occupational choice

	Encouragement of Parents					
	Has encouraged		Has not encouraged or Discouraged		Has discouraged	
Occupational Expectations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
High	54	68	50	59	38	37
Medium	26	18	38	23	12	19
Low	20	14	12	18	50	44
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	59	342	42	165	8	16
Total Sample %	27	42	19	20	4	2

In the neutral category of "neither encouraged **nor discouraged**", non-Indians still tended to choose high occupations.

In the "has discouraged" category, there was still a high percentage who chose high occupations -- 38 percent Indians and 37 percent non-Indians. For Indians, 12 percent, and non-Indians 19 percent, chose medium range occupations. However, 50 percent of the Indians who indicated parental discouragement also indicated a low occupational expectation while the figure was 44 percent for the non-Indians.

Overall, therefore, the relationship which would be predicted -- the more encouragement the higher the occupation did obtain and was in favour of the non-Indians.

The marginal percentages also showed that 42 percent of the total non-Indians' sample indicated parental encouragement while only 27 percent of the total Indians' sample indicated parental encouragement.

Occupational Expectations and Perception of Parents

The present section will deal with occupations in relation to perceived parents' rating of education. Thus, the present section will look at the relationship between occupations and some of the variables (or concepts) described in Part A.

Table 11 is the relationship between occupations and perceived parents' educational aspirations.

Table 11. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived parents' educational aspirations

	Below College		College Level	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Occupational Expectations				
High	35	42	68	80
Medium	38	32	21	11
Low	27	26	11	9
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	52	210	56	312

For the students who perceived their parents as wishing for a below college level education, 42 percent of the non-Indians expected high occupations, 32 percent medium, and 26 percent low.

For Indians, the distribution was more evenly distributed with 35 percent high, 38 percent medium and 27 percent low. The distribution for the category was the reverse of what would be expected -- low aspirations, low occupations. Thus, occupational expectations were higher than the educational aspirations of the parents. There was a strong correlation between occupations and education, e.g. to become a doctor one must have a high level of education and to become a welder, educational level need not be high. Thus, there was a discrepancy for the below college level and occupations.

At the college level of aspirations, the percentages ran in the expected direction, i.e. high aspiration, high occupation. For the non-Indians 80 percent expected high occupation while 68 percent of the Indians did so.

Table 12 represents the relationship between occupations and parents' rating of ability to complete college. At the "definitely or perhaps" level, 72 percent of the non-Indians and 58 percent of the Indians chose high occupations. The tendency was that Indians chose medium or low level occupations more so than non-Indians even though their perceived ability was high.

In the category of "not sure either way", the tendency was still that the non-Indians chose high occupations, 58 percent, and the Indians 45 percent. Indians again seemed to choose medium or low occupations more so than non-Indians.

The "perhaps not or definitely not" category reflects the trend -- the less perceived ability, the lower the occupation. However, more non-Indians looked toward higher occupations than

Indians.

On a similar relationship as the ability to complete college, the relationship was done also with perceived parents' rating of school ability. The same pattern existed as with the ability to complete college relationship. Specifically, the more ability, the higher the level of occupations; however, again the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians (no Table shown).

Table 12. Occupational expectations in relation to perceived parents' rating of ability to complete college

	Ability to Complete College					
	Definitely or perhaps		Not sure either way		Perhaps not or definitely not	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Occupational Expectations						
High	58	72	45	58	20	28
Medium	27	15	32	24	40	38
Low	15	13	23	18	40	34
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	66	372	38	93	5	58

Occupations, Education, and Parents' Employment

In reference to parents, students were asked to indicate whether their parents worked full time, seasonal, or not at all. Students were also asked the type of occupation the parents were qualified to do -- whether they worked or not.

The following relationship used these two measures in relation to occupations and educational aspirations.

Table 13 gives the relationship between occupational expectations and parents' employment. Parents who worked full time showed that students tended to choose high occupations. However, for non-Indians, 67 percent have chosen high occupations, while for Indians, the figure was only 43 percent. Full-time employment led to Indians choosing medium level occupations (40 percent) more frequently than non-Indians.

Table 13. Occupational expectations in relation to parents' employment

	Full-Time		Seasonal		None	
Occupational Expectations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
High	43	67	57	54	53	59
Medium	40	18	16	30	37	19
Low	17	15	27	16	10	22
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	35	423	44	54	30	41

At the "seasonal" level of employment, Indians and non-Indians tended to be even at the high occupational level. Non-Indians were higher, 30 percent, than Indians, 16 percent, at the medium range, and Indians higher than non-Indians at the low range -- 27 and 16 percent respectively.

For the category of "no work", the discrepancy between Indians and non-Indians was 53 and 59 percent respectively at the high level of occupations. For Indians whose parents did not work, 37 percent chose medium level and 10 percent low level occupations. The equivalent figures for non-Indians were 19 and 22 percent.

Thus, just looking at the high level of occupational choice, full-time employment counted more for non-Indians, seasonal employment counted more for Indians, and no employment counted more for non-Indians.

Table 14 represents a similar approach as that of Table 13; however, occupational expectations were related to the type of employment of parents, regardless of whether the parents were employed full-time, seasonally or not at all.

In the high **status** category it was difficult to make good comparisons because for Indians there were only two cases which fell in this category. However, the overall pattern seemed to be that regardless of parental occupational status, non-Indians had higher occupational expectations.

Table 14. Occupational Expectations in Relation to parents' occupational status

Occupational Expectations	Parents' Occupational Status High I. %	 NI. %	 Medium I. %	 NI. %	 Low I. %	 NI. %
High	50	73	41	65	58	64
Medium	50	10	41	22	20	19
Low	--	17	18	13	22	17
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	2	48	29	183	59	251

Table 15 relates occupational aspirations with parents' employment. At the "full-time" level of parental employment, 67 percent of the non-Indians aspired to a college level education while 54 percent of the Indians aspired to a college level education. Thus, fewer non-Indians, 33 percent, whose parents worked full-time aspired to an education below the college level than Indians, 46 percent.

At the "seasonal" level or the "no employment" level, the percentages tended to even out more, but were still in favour of the non-Indians. Overall, however, full-time employment of parents had the best relationship with high education aspirations.

Table 15. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' employment

	Full Time		Seasonal		None	
	I.	NI.	I.	NI.	I.	NI.
Educational Aspirations						
Below College	46	33	61	50	61	46
Above College	54	67	39	50	39	54
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	657	93	78	70	71

Table 16 relates educational aspirations with parents' occupational status. At the high occupational status level for parents, non-Indians, 82 percent, aspired to an above college level education. The Indians split 50-50 for above college and below college (Note however, this was based on only 2 cases). Overall, however, for non-Indians, regardless of the occupational status of parents, the majority aspired to an above college level education, whereas this was not the case for Indians. For Indians, the trend was that the lower the occupational status of parents, the lower the educational aspirations.

Table 16. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' occupational status

Educational Aspirations	Parents' Occupational Status: High I.	High NI.	Medium I.	Medium NI.	Low I.	Low NI.
Below College	50	18	65	33	57	39
Above College	50	82	35	67	43	61
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	2	85	51	274	129	395

Total Samples: 41 or 18% of total Indian sample gave no response to parents' occupation.

63 or 8% of total non-Indian sample gave no response to parents' occupation.

Educational Aspirations and Occupational Expectations

As the purpose of the study was to explain occupations and educational aspirations, Table 17 can be analyzed in two different ways, (1) occupations as depending on aspirations, and (2) aspirations depending on occupations.

In the first method, in the "below college" category, there was no difference between Indians and non-Indians in their choice of high level occupations--33 and 34 percent respectively. However, there was a tendency for more Indians, 42 percent, to choose jobs at the medium range than non-Indians, 34 percent. Also, less Indians chose jobs at the low range of occupations, 25 percent, than non-Indians. The type of relationship for these variables would be that the lower the educational aspirations the lower the occupational expectations. This relationship did not obtain for either the Indians or non-Indians. The distribution tended to be fairly even regardless of occupational choice, and if anything, was higher at the high occupational choice when theoretically they should have been lower.

Table 17. Educational aspirations in relation to occupational choice *

	Below College		College Level		Total %	No. of Cases	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %		I.	NI.
Occupational Expectation							
High	33(30)	34(19)	70(70)	81(81)	(100)	56	338
Medium	42(69)	34(63)	18(31)	11(37)	(100)	32	100
Low	25(65)	32(68)	12(35)	8(32)	(100)	20	84
Total %	100	100	100	100.			
No. of Cases	52	183	56	339		108	522

* The table runs two ways: The percentages in brackets go across the rows and designates the relationship: occupational expectations lead to what educational aspirations. The percentages in the columns look at the relationship: educational aspirations lead to what kind of occupational expectations.

On the other hand, at the college level category the relationship was in the direction that would be predicted--high educational aspirations lead to high occupational choice. More non-Indians, 81 percent, chose jobs of the high category while

70 percent of the Indians chose jobs in the high category. Conversely, less non-Indians chose jobs in the low category than Indians--8 and 12 percent respectively.

Thus, at the below college level there was not a great deal of difference between Indians and non-Indians as to occupational expectations. At the college level of aspirations, the figures were in favour of the non-Indians regarding choice of occupations.

In regard to the second type of relationship--what occupational expectations lead to what educational aspirations, the relationship would be that high occupational expectations lead to high educational aspirations and conversely, low occupational expectations lead to low occupational aspirations. The overall relationship did obtain. At the high level of occupational choice, 81 percent of the non-Indians aspired to an education above college, while for Indians, the figure was 70 percent. Thus, for this relationship, both Indians and non-Indians were in the right direction but the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians.

At the medium level of occupations, more Indians, 69 percent, chose jobs at the below college level than non-Indians, 63 percent. Conversely, more non-Indians aspired to a college level education than did Indians, 31 percent.

Thus, at the high and medium level of occupational expectations, the figures were in favour of the non-Indians whereas at the low level, the figures were in favour of the Indians. More Indians, even though they expected jobs at the low level, aspired to a college level education, 35 and 32 percent for Indians and non-Indians respectively.

SUMMARY

The present chapter investigated educational aspirations and occupational expectations.

To attempt to explain these, two classes of variables have been used. The first was how the students thought they perceived their parents. In other words, how do the students think their parents would rate them (i.e. the students) on ability, how much encouragement is given by parents.

The second class of variables is the student's perceptions of himself -- how does he rate his own ability.

The summary is numbered in such a fashion that the number also refers to the Table in the text. This affords a method by which the Table can be cross-checked if so desired to look at the actual percentages.

1. The correspondence between educational aspirations and expectations was such that for Indians the correspondence was high between aspirations and expectations. In other words, a high proportion of Indians not only aspired to a level of education below college, but also expected an education below college.

For non-Indians, on the other hand, the tendency was that a higher proportion not only aspired to an education at the college level, but also expected an education at the college level.

2. The relationship between parental aspirations and students' aspirations was such that there was high agreement among Indians at the below college level. Specifically, for Indians, if

parental aspirations were below college, then the student's aspirations were below college.

For non-Indians, if parents' aspirations were below college, there was a tendency for some students to aspire to a level of education higher than their parents' aspirations.

If parents' aspirations were at the college level, the relationship was that less Indian students aspired to a college level education than did non-Indians. That is, more Indians had aspirations below their parents than did non-Indians.

3. Parents' rating of students' ability as perceived by the students showed that as ability increased, educational aspirations increased. However, the relationship held up more for non-Indians. For Indians, there was a higher proportion who indicated a below average ability wanting only a high school level of education. Thus, the congruence between parents' rating of ability and aspirations was high for non-Indians and low for Indians. The figures were such that for non-Indians even when parents rated them as below average, their aspirations were still high, whereas for Indians if parents rated ability as low, then aspirations were correspondingly low. In effect, non-Indians' aspirations tended to be higher than the Indians even when parental rating of ability was low.

4. Parents' rating of ability to complete college in relation to students' aspirations showed a similar trend to perceived parental rating of ability. Specifically, for non-Indians, as parental

rating of ability to complete college increased, aspirations increased also. For Indians, on the other hand, the relationship was not as marked. Further, for non-Indians, the data were such that aspirations were high even when parental ratings were low. Therefore, like other findings for non-Indians, aspirations were higher than parents' ratings, whereas for Indians, the correspondence between students and parents was closer.

5. The relationship that obtained between the degree to which parents were informed and aspirations was that the greater the degree to which parents were informed, the higher the aspirations. The relationship however was more in favour of the non-Indians such that even when parents talked seldom, the aspirations were higher than those of Indians.

6. The importance of good grades in relation to aspirations showed that for non-Indians the greater the importance put on grades, the higher the aspirations. For Indians, on the other hand, the relationship was not so marked, i.e. no matter what degree of importance was put on grades, it did not affect levels of aspirations.

7. The relationship between self perceptions of school ability and educational aspirations showed that for non-Indians, as perceived ability increased, so did aspirations. For Indians, on the other hand, even though proportionately the number of Indians who indicated high perceived ability was not so different from non-Indians, the degree of aspirations was low.

8. A different picture emerged when students rated their ability for chosen job in relation to occupational expectations. Overall, Indians tended to expect jobs in the medium to low ranges (i.e. occupational prestige) regardless of perceived ability for their chosen job. For non-Indians, the tendency was to choose high occupations (re occupational prestige) regardless of perceived ability. However, the general trend for non-Indians did show that as ability for chosen job increased, so did occupational expectations. There was a noteworthy exception to the trends. If students indicated a below average ability for chosen job, the relationship was such that for Indians there was a higher proportion than non-Indians who indicated high occupational expectations.

9. The relationship between expected sources of help and occupational choice revealed that for non-Indians, if parents were named, occupational expectations were high. Whereas, for Indians, if relatives or friends were named, occupational expectations were high.

10. Another relationship looked at parental encouragement in relation to occupational expectations in closer perspective than the above relationship. For both Indians and non-Indians, the relationship was such that as parental encouragement increased, so did occupational expectations. However, the relationship was in favour of the non-Indians. Specifically, given parents gave encouragement, more non-Indians than Indians had high occupational expectations. Also, given parents had discouraged them, non-Indians

still chose higher occupations than did Indians. In other words, for Indians, if parents have discouraged them, the tendency was that occupational choice would be low.

11. The relationship between parental aspirations and occupational choice showed that for non-Indians, if parents aspired to a college level education, students also aspired to a high occupational choice. However, if parents aspired to an education below college, students' occupational choices still tended to be high. Specifically, students' occupational expectations ran ahead of parents' educational aspirations.

For Indians, the same trend appeared but tended to be proportionately lower than for non-Indians. Indians tended to choose medium or low range occupations.

12. When parents rating of ability to complete college was correlated to occupational expectations, the trend that obtained was that the higher the ability, the higher the occupational choice. However, the trend was also that Indians lagged behind non-Indians. More non-Indians indicated high occupational choice when ratings of ability were high and more non-Indians indicated high occupational choice when ratings of ability were low.

13. The relationship between occupational expectations and parents' employment was such that for non-Indians, as parental employment increased from no work to full time, occupational expectations increased. For Indians, on the other hand, the relationship was not as great -- as parental employment increased from no work to full time, occupational expectations tended to be in the medium range.

14. There was a similar relationship to the above except that instead of using parental employment, parents occupational status was used. The relationship for non-Indians was that if parents occupational status was high, students occupational expectations were also high. However, if parents' status was medium or low, there was no difference on the degree of occupational expectations, although the direction was towards higher occupational expectations. For Indians, the tendency was toward medium levels of occupational expectations as parental status increased. There was also a tendency that if parents had low occupational status that there was a proportionately higher percentage of Indians choosing high occupations than if parents status was medium or high.

15. Educational aspirations in relation to parents' employment showed a similar pattern for both Indians and non-Indians. If parents worked full time, educational aspirations were high. However, non-Indians were higher than Indians. If parents' work was seasonal or none, for non-Indians, aspirations were still high (but not as high as when parents worked full time) and for Indians aspirations were low. Thus, for non-Indians, the discrepency as to parents' work and aspirations was not so large; whereas, for non-Indians, if parents worked full time, there was a marked increase in aspirations.

16. The relationship between parents' occupational status and educational aspirations showed a pattern very similar to parents' employment. For non-Indians, if parents' status was high,

so were educational aspirations and were much higher than for Indians. If parents' work was seasonal or none, educational aspirations were still high for non-Indians whereas for Indians, a higher proportion had low educational aspirations.

17. The relationship between educational aspirations and occupational expectations was analyzed two ways. The first was such that educational aspirations was the independent variable, i.e. educational aspirations lead to or predict what level of occupational expectations. The relationship was such that if educational aspirations were low, so were the occupational expectations and if high, so were the occupational expectations. The relationship held for both Indians and non-Indians. The major difference was that for non-Indians who aspired to a college level education, a higher proportion than Indians expected a high occupational attainment.

The second relationship had occupational expectations as the independent variable, i.e. occupational expectations lead to what level of educational aspirations. The relationship was such that for both Indians and non-Indians, as occupational expectations increased, educational aspirations also increased. However, if occupational expectations were high, non-Indians tended to have higher educational aspirations than did Indians.

At the medium level of occupational expectations, more non-Indians than Indians aspired to a college level of education. At the low level of occupational expectations, Indians tended to be slightly higher than non-Indians in aspiring to a college level education. Thus, at the low level of occupational expectations, Indians' educational aspirations were higher than non-Indians.

CHAPTER III

STUDENTS SELF RATING OF SCHOOL ABILITY

The present chapter investigates students self rating of ability in relation to other students in the class. As the sample of students was taken from both Federal and Provincial schools, the results of simply comparing Indians and non-Indians could have been distorted because of the two school systems. Therefore, the Indians were separated according to school system -- Indians in Federal schools and Indians in Provincial schools. To ask the question, to compare themselves in relation to other members of the class allowed for Federal school students to compare themselves with other Indians. In the Provincial schools, the comparison was with other Indians as well as non-Indians.

School Ability and Educational Correlates:

For the above average category of school ability, Table 18, Indians in Federal schools were higher in rating the importance of grades, 65 percent, than Indians in Provincial schools, 61 percent. The non-Indians were higher still, 78 percent. Overall, regardless of school ability, reserve school Indians were higher than Provincial school Indians regarding grades as very important and non-Indians were higher still. The type of relationship that would have been predicted from these two variables would have been the higher the perceived ability, the higher the rating of the importance of good grades. The trend held only partially, that is, regardless of school ability, the importance of good grades at the very important level tended to be higher but decreased some at the below average ability.

Table 18. Students' rating of their school ability (relative to class) in relation to their rating of the importance of good grades

	School Ability								
	Above Average			Average			Below Average		
Importance of grades	I.F.S.* %	I.P.S.** %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %
Very important	65	61	78	61	50	68	46	33	51
Important	20	22	18	33	43	29	31	48	37
Not Important or Don't matter	15	17	4	6	7	3	23	19	12
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	34	23	194	46	74	542	13	33	76

*I.F.S. Indians in Federal schools

**I.P.S. Indians in Provincial schools

At the "above average" level of ability, the reserve school Indians, 15 percent, and Provincial school Indians, 17 percent, were higher than non-Indians 4 percent in rating grades as not important. At the "below average" level reserve school Indians were highest in rating grades as not important - 23 percent as opposed to 19 percent for Provincial school Indians and 12 percent for non-Indians.

Table 19 represents the relationship between school ability and parents rating of ability to complete college. The predicted direction would have been: the higher the ability the higher the parental rating of ability to complete college. Generally just such a relationship obtained. At the above average level and average level of ability, reserve school Indians were higher on ability to complete college than Provincial school Indians and the non-Indians were higher still.

At the below average level, Indians in Provincial schools, 61 percent, rated themselves higher than reserve Indians 23 percent and non-Indians 42 percent in ability to complete college. However, for reserve schools Indians; 69 percent were in the "not sure" category of their ability to complete college. Non-Indians, however, were higher, 28 percent, than the Indians in indicating the "perhaps not or definitely not" category. The figures showed that for non-Indians more indicated the lower end of the scale of ability to complete college than did the Indians for all categories of school ability.

Table 19. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and parents' rating of ability to complete college

	School Ability								
	Above Average			Average			Below Average		
Parents' rating of ability to complete college	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %
Definitely or Perhaps	74	70	88	63	61	68	23	61	42
Not sure	23	30	7	28	30	22	69	27	30
Perhaps not or definitely not	3	0	5	9	9	10	8	22	28
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	34	23	194	46	74	541	13	33	77

The relationship between students ability and the degree to which parents are informed about school in shown in Table 20.

At the "above average" level of school ability, Indians in Federal schools 56 percent, indicated that parents always like to talk about school. The Indians in Provincial schools were lower with 26 percent and the non-Indians were 56 percent. Conversely, for Indians in Provincial schools, 22 percent indicated that parents seldom talk while the figure for Indians in Federal schools was 12 percent and for non-Indians only 8 percent.

At the "average" level of school ability, Indians in Federal schools and non-Indians were quite evenly distributed--41 and 42 percent respectively who indicated that parents always like to talk. Indians in Provincial schools on the other hand amounted to only 23 percent, however, they "talk sometimes" more frequently than the others. At the lower end of the scale both types of Indians indicated that parents "talk seldom" with a higher frequency, 18 and 19 percent, than did non-Indians - 15 percent.

At the "below average" level of ability, non Indians indicated "always like to talk" 25 percent, whereas the figures for Indians in both types of schools was 15 percent each. Further, Indians on reserve schools, 39 percent, showed a greater proportion indicating that parents "talk seldom" about school matters. The comparable figures for Indians in Provincial schools was 21 percent and for non-Indians 20 percent.

Table 20. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and the degree to which parents are informed.

The degree to which parents are informed	School Ability Above Average I.F.S. %	 I.P. %	 N.I. %	 Average I.F.S. %	 I.P. %	 N.I. %	 Below Average I.F.S. %	 I.P. %	 N.I. %
Always like to talk	56	26	56	41	23	42	15	15	25
Talk sometimes	32	52	36	41	58	43	46	64	55
Talk seldom or doesn't matter	12	22	8	18	19	15	39	21	20
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	34	23	193	46	73	541	13	33	77

Therefore overall, Indians in reserve schools at the above or average level of ability had a higher correlation with the degree to which parents were informed over Indians in Provincial schools but lost ground at the below average level of ability where Indians in Provincial schools showed parents to be more informed.

School Ability and Occupational Correlates

The relationship between school ability and ratings of occupational ability is given in Table 21.

For the "above average" level of ability, Indians in reserve schools, 53 percent, saw themselves as having an "above average" ability for their chosen job. The comparable figure was 18 percent for Indians in Provincial schools and 60 percent for non-Indians. Conversely, for Indians in Provincial schools, 50 percent indicated a "below average" ability for their chosen occupation while the figures were only 20 percent for Indians in reserve schools and 12 percent for non-Indians.

For the "average" level of school ability, non-Indians, 30 percent, indicated an ability "above average" for their chosen occupation, and Indians in both types of schools were even at 23 percent. Overall, however, there was a tendency that for "average" ability, the students are also average on ability for chosen job. There were more Indians in Federal schools, 36 percent, who indicated a below average occupational ability than Indians in Provincial schools, 26 percent, and non-Indians 23 percent.

Table 21. Relationship between students' rating of school ability and their rating of ability for chosen job.

	School Ability								
	Above Average			Average			Below Average		
Ability for chosen job	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %
Above Average	53	18	60	23	23	30	46	16	22
Average	27	32	28	41	51	47	23	21	38
Below Average or don't know	20	50	12	36	26	23	23	63	40
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	34	22	193	44	73	542	13	32	77

At the "below average" level of ability, Indians in reserve schools by far outnumbered, 46 percent, the Indians in Provincial schools 16 percent and non-Indians 22 percent in indicating that ability for chosen job was above average. It was noteworthy also that Indians in Provincial schools 63 percent indicated that their ability for occupation was below average, while the figure for the Indians for Federal schools was 23 percent and non-Indians 40 percent.

Students' rating of ability in relation to parental encouragement regarding students' chosen occupation is shown in Table 22. For the "above average" category, non-Indians, 71 percent indicated that parents have given encouragement while 50 percent of the Indians in Reserve schools indicated parental encouragement. Indians in Reserve schools, 47 percent, indicated neutral parental encouragement while the figures for Indians in Provincial schools was 32 percent and for non-Indians 26 percent. Overall Indians in Federal schools indicated more neutral parental encouragement at all levels of school ability.

At the "average" level of school ability the direction was in favor of the non-Indians 59 percent followed by Indians in Provincial schools, 49 percent, and finally by Indians in Reserve schools 42 percent in regard to high parental encouragement.

The "below level" category of school ability indicated also that Indians in Provincial schools showed more parental encouragement than Indians in Reserve schools, 46 percent, and non-Indians 44 percent.

Table 22. Relationship between students' ratings of school ability and parental encouragement regarding chosen job.

Parental Encouragement	Above Average			Average			Below Average		
	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P. %	N.I. %
Has given encouragement	50	57	71	42	49	59	46	48	44
Has not encouraged nor discouraged	47	32	25	51	46	40	54	45	45
Has discouraged	3	11	4	7	5	1	-	7	11
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	33	22	194	45	71	536	13	33	77

Overall, the variable of perceived school ability correlated with the other variables in a more favourable way for Indians in Reserve schools than for Indians in Provincial schools and at times more favorably than with the non-Indians. The one exception would be in parental encouragement regarding chosen occupation which tended to be more in favor of the Indians in Provincial schools but still behind the non-Indians.

The implications of such relationship must be looked at within the larger context of the whole study and the nature of what was happening social-psychologically. These implications will be discussed in the final chapter.

SUMMARY

Chapter Three investigated the self-ratings of school ability. Self-rating was measured by asking the students to rate themselves in comparison to the members of their class. The analyses have been done in such a fashion as to separate the different school systems.

18. The relationship between school ability and the importance of good grades showed that as self-rating of school ability increased so did the importance of good grades. However, Indians lagged behind the non-Indians such that those Indians who indicated an above average ability were proportionately lower than the non-Indians as indicating grades as being very important. Equally the proportion of Indians indicating a below average ability was higher than non-Indians who indicated that grades did not matter at all. Further, even though Indians lagged behind non-Indians in the relationship of ability and importance of grades Indians in Provincial schools lagged behind those in Federal schools. Specifically for Indians the relationship was more in favor of Indians in Federal schools than those Indians in Provincial schools.

19. School ability in relation to parents rating of ability to complete college showed that as school ability increased so did ability to complete college. Again, the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians and the tendency was that Indians in Provincial schools lagged behind the Indians in Federal schools. The one noteable exception was that Indians in Provincial schools, if they

had a below average ability indicated in a much greater proportion than either the Indians in Federal schools or non-Indians that they perceived their parents as rating them high on ability to complete college.

20. Perceived self-rating of ability in relation to the degree to which parents like to talk about school showed that as ability increased so did the degree to which parents liked to talk. However, Indians in Federal schools and non-Indians are very similar in their patterns and proportions and both of these were ahead of Indians in Provincial schools.

21. School ability in relation to ability for chosen job was such that as ability increased so did ability for chosen job and the data were in favor of the Indians in Federal schools over the Indians in Provincial schools and both of these however lagged behind the non-Indians.

22. The relationship between ability and parental encouragement regarding their chosen occupation showed that as ability increased so did the degree of parental encouragement. Indians lagged behind the non-Indians; however, Indians in Federal schools lagged behind Indians in Provincial schools. There was also a tendency that Indians in Federal schools as ability decreased the degree to which parents showed more neutrality (i.e., neither encourages nor discourages) increased. Even though the same relationship existed for Indians in Provincial schools the proportions were not as high and the relationship was even more in favor of the non-Indians.

CHAPTER IV

CORRELATES OF PERCEPTION OF PARENTS

Parental Aspirations:

Table 23 shows the relationship between parental aspirations and students' perceived ability in school in relation to class friends. The table was broken down according to school system.

Table 23. Relationship between parents' educational aspirations and students' ability in school as compared to the class.

	Parents' Educational Aspirations					
	Below College			College Level		
School Ability	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %	I.F.S. %	I.P.S. %	N.I. %
Above Average	33	19	14	41	16	28
Average	53	57	71	45	57	65
Below Average	14	24	15	14	27	7
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	49	51	255	44	79	559

The Indians in Federal schools who saw their parents as aspiring to a below college level education, 33 percent, indicated an "above average" ability while Indians in Provincial schools, only 19 percent, and non-Indians, 14 percent, indicated an above average ability. Indians in Provincial schools tended to indicate an "average ability" 57 percent, while for Indians in Federal schools the figure was 53 percent and non-Indians 71 percent. Also for the below college level of aspirations, Indians in Provincial schools indicated in greater proportion a below average ability, 24 percent, while the figure for Indians in Federal schools was 14 percent and non-Indians 15 percent. Thus the figures at the below college level of aspiration were in favor of the Indians in Federal schools.

At the college level 41 percent of the Indians in Federal schools indicated an "above average" level of ability while the figures for Indians in Provincial schools and non-Indians was 16 and 28 percent respectively. Indians in Provincial schools, however, were proportionately higher, 57 percent, than Indians in Federal schools, 45 percent, who indicated an average ability. Non-Indians represented the smallest proportion, 7 percent, who indicated a below average ability while 27 percent of the Indians in Provincial schools and 14 percent in Federal schools indicated a below average ability.

Thus, the Indians in Federal schools tended to see themselves as having a higher ability than other Indians or non-Indians.

The relationship between parents' educational aspirations and the degree to which parents were informed about school matters is given in Table 24. The expected distribution would be that the higher the parental aspiration the higher the degree to which parents were informed. Such a relationship did obtain. Non-Indians represent 32 percent as opposed to 21 percent for Indians who indicated that parents always like to keep informed. Indians on the other hand represented 57 percent who indicated that parents like to "talk sometime" while for non-Indians it was 45 percent. At the "talk seldom" category, Indians and non-Indians were quite even -- 22 and 23 percent respectively.

Table 24. Relationship between parents' educational aspirations and the degree to which parents are informed about school matters.

	Parents' Aspirations			
	Below College		College Level	
Informed Parents	I %	N.I. %	N. %	N.I. %
Always like to talk	21	32	39	49
Talk sometimes	57	45	44	42
Talk seldom or doesn't matter	22	23	17	9
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of cases	97	255	122	560

At the college level the expected relationship held up better but more in favor of the non-Indians. Non-Indians represented 49 percent who indicated high informed parents while for Indians the figure was only 39 percent. At the "talk sometimes" category, the distributions were fairly even -- 44 and 42 percent for Indians and non-indians respectively. At the low end of the scale, however, only 9 percent of the non-Indians indicated that parents "talk seldom",while for Indians the figure was 17 percent.

Thus at the college level of education, the figures were in favor of the non-Indians. At the below college level, the figures were only partially in favor of the non-Indians. The relationship did show, however, that given students perceive their parents as having low educational aspirations, that it was likely that parents talked seldom about school and this would be true for both Indians and non-Indians.

In reference to occupations, perceived parents' educational aspirations is shown in relation to students' ability for chosen job in Table 25. Aspirations at the below college level showed Indians and non-Indians fairly evenly distributed in relation to ability for chosen job. The figures were slightly in favor of the non-Indians -- non-Indians tended to indicate "above average" or "average" ability more frequently than Indians and also indicated proportionately less at the "below average" or "dont' know" categories of ability.

At the college level of aspiration, the pattern was the same.

Table 26 shows a similar pattern as the above in relation to parental encouragement regarding chosen occupation. More non-Indians showed parental encouragement at both levels of aspirations. Indians tended to indicate more that parents "neither encourage nor discourage" for both levels of aspirations. The amount of discouragement was fairly even in all cases. Overall, the relationship was that the higher the parents' aspirations, the higher the parental encouragement. Even though the relationship

Table 25. Parents' educational aspirations in relation to perceived ability for chosen occupation.

	Parents' Aspirations			
	Below College		College Level	
Ability for chosen job	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Above Average	22	25	32	42
Average	36	48	38	39
Below Average	16	12	13	5
Don't Know	26	15	17	14
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	97	257	121	559

Table 26. Parents' educational aspirations in relation to parental encouragement regarding chosen occupation.

	Parents' Aspirations			
	Below College		College Level	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Has encouraged	40	55	56	63
Has not encouraged or discouraged	55	40	39	35
Has encouraged	5	5	5	2
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	98	254	120	557

does obtain for both Indians and non-Indians, the figures are more in favor of the non-Indians.

Parental Interest in the Education of their Children

The degree to which parents were informed in relation to expected sources of help regarding chosen occupation is given in Table 27.

Table 27. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to expected sources of help regarding choice of occupation.

	Degree to which Parents are Informed					
	Parents always like to talk		Parents talk sometimes		Parents talk seldom or doesn't matter	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Expected sources of help						
Parents or guardian	55	69	40	47	35	37
Relatives or friends	15	12	15	21	23	19
no one or some other person	15	8	15	10	16	15
don't know	15	11	30	22	26	29
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No of Cases	67	352	110	346	43	111

Parents were named most often by both Indians and non-Indians as expected sources of help regardless of the degree of parental interest (i.e. the degree to which parents were informed).

However, the figures showed that as the degree of parental interest decreased so did the proportion of students (Indians and non-Indians) who said that parents can be regarded as a source of help in their chosen occupation. The tendency was that friends and relatives increased in importance as parental interest decreased.

At the "parents always like to talk" and "parents talk sometimes" categories, Indians tended to indicate some other person or no one as expected sources of help more frequently than did non-Indians.

At the "talk seldom" category, Indians and non-Indians represented 16 and 15 percent respectively in regards to expected sources of help in the category of "no one or some other person".

Also, as the degree of parental interest decreased, there was an increase in the number of students who indicated they don't know where to expect help and this was true for both Indians and non-Indians.

Overall, the figures were in favor of the non-Indians. Non-Indians named parents as sources of help more often than did Indians regardless of parental interest. Further, more non-Indians tended to know where to expect help more than did Indians as illustrated in the "no one or some other person", and "don't know" categories. Figures here tended to be smaller in proportion to the Indians thus indicating that parents, friends, or relatives were named more often by non-Indians.

Table 28 represents the relationship between parental interest and parental encouragement regarding students' choice of occupation.

Table 28. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to the degree of parental encouragement regarding choice of occupation.

	Parents always like to talk		Parents talk sometimes		Parents talk seldom or doesn't matter	
	I.	NI.	I.	NI.	I.	NI.
Parental encouragement	%	%	%	%	%	%
Has encouraged	57	70	49	60	33	30
Has not encouraged or discouraged	40	27	45	39	60	63
Has discouraged	3	3	6	1	7	7
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No of Cases	68	354	107	342	42	112

The figures showed that as the amount of parental interest decreased, parental encouragement also decreased and the proportion designating neutrality (has not encouraged or discouraged) increased. For the categories of "parents always like to talk" or "talk sometimes" non-Indians represented 70 and 60 percent for the two categories in designating parental encouragement. The comparable figures for Indians were 57 and 49 percent.

At the lower end of the scale--"parents talk seldom", the figures were slightly in favor of the Indians over non-Indians--33 and 30 percent respectively in regards to parental encouragement.

Indians designated the neutral category of encouragement more than the non-Indians for "parents always like to talk" and "talk sometimes" categories.

At the "seldom talk" category the figures were in favor of the Indians in the neutral category of encouragement.

For all categories of parental interest, the "has discouraged" category was low for both samples and tended to be quite even.

The degree to which parents were informed about school in relation to perceived ability for chosen job is shown in Table 29.

Table 29. The degree to which parents are informed about school in relation to ability for chosen occupation

	Parents always like to talk		Parents Talk Sometimes		Parents talk seldom or doesn't matter	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Ability for Occupation						
Above average	39	43	20	31	29	29
Average	39	41	45	44	14	39
Below Average	10	4	15	8	21	15
Don't know	12	12	20	17	36	17
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No of Cases	67	355	108	347	42	111

In the category of "parents always like to talk", Indians and non-Indians were fairly evenly distributed regarding ability for chosen occupation but nevertheless slightly in favor of the non-Indians. The main discrepency was that Indians, 10 percent, indicated a below average ability in greater proportion than did non-Indians -- 4 percent.

For the "parents talk sometimes" category non-Indians represented 31 percent and Indians 20 percent who indicated an above average ability for chosen job. Indians and non-Indians were fairly even, 45 and 44 percent respectively, in indicating an average ability for occupation. However, Indians indicated more frequently, a below average ability 15 percent versus 8 percent for non-Indians. Also, 20 percent of the Indians indicated the "don't know" category while the figure was 17 percent for non-Indians.

When parents "talk seldom", Indians and non-Indians were evenly distributed, 29 percent as indicating an above average ability. However, non-Indians represented 39 percent who indicated an average ability while for Indians the figure was 14 percent. The proportion of Indians indicating below average ability and don't know, 21 and 36 percent respectively, was higher than for non-Indians, 15 and 17 percent respectively, for the "below average" and "don't know" categories.

The overall relationship, however, was that as parental interest decreased, so did ability for chosen occupation. Even though the relationship holds for both Indians and non-Indians, the non-Indians showed a better relationship than did Indians. Furthermore, the increase in the "don't know" category was higher for Indians as parental interest decreased than for the non-Indians. For example, the Indians who indicated that parents "always like to talk", only 12 percent indicated the "don't know" on ability, while those who said that parents seldom talk, 36 percent indicated the "don't know" category on ability. The comparable figures for non-Indians, on the other hand, was 12 and 17 percent respectively.

SUMMARY

The present chapter investigated correlates of the perception of parents. Specifically, students were asked to rate themselves as they thought their parents would rate them in regards to educational aspirations (e.g. how far do you think your parents would like you to go in school) and occupational expectations.

23. The relationship between parents' educational aspirations and perceived school ability showed that as parents aspirations increased so did ability. However, Indians in Federal schools showed that as parental aspirations increased ability increased and the relationship was stronger than for either Indians in Provincial schools or non-Indians. However, non-Indians showed a stronger relationship than Indians in Provincial schools.

24. The non-Indians were substantially ahead of the Indians in the relationship between aspirations and the degree to which parents were informed. Specifically, for non-Indians as parents' educational aspirations increased so did the degree to which parents were informed about school matters. Although the same relationship obtained for Indians, the correlation was not as strong.

25. Parents educational aspirations in relation to ability for chosen job showed that as parental aspirations increased so

did ability for chosen job. However, non-Indians showed a much stronger relationship than Indians.

26. The relationship between parents' educational aspirations and parental encouragement regarding students' choice of occupation was again in favor of non-Indians. Specifically, as parents' aspirations increased so did parental encouragement. Further, Indians particularly, when parents aspirations were below the college level showed a greater degree of neutrality, i.e. that parents neither have encouraged nor discouraged their sons and daughters regarding the occupation of their choice.

27. The relationship between the degree to which parents were informed about school matters and the expected sources of help regarding choice of occupation showed that as the degree to which parents were informed increased parents were more often named as sources of help. Again, the relationship was stronger (thus in favor) for the the non-Indians. For Indians as the degree to which parents were informed decreased, even though parents were the most often named as sources of help, the proportion of Indians naming relatives, or some other person, or saying they don't know any expected sources of help increased.

28 As the degree to which parents liked to talk about school matters increased so did the degree to which parents gave encouragement about students' occupational choice. The relationship held for both Indians and non-Indians but like other relationships, the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians.

Specifically, if parents always like to talk about school matters, then parental encouragement regarding occupation was high; and the relationship was proportionately higher for non-Indians than for Indians.

29. The relationship between the degree to which parents always like to talk about school matters and the students perceived ability for the occupation of their choice showed that as the degree to which parents talk about school matters increased, ability for chosen occupation also increased. Again, the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians. The Indians who indicated that parents seldom talk about school matters also indicated in much higher proportion than the non-Indians (nearly 2:1) that their ability for their chosen occupation was below average or did not know their ability for their chosen job.

CHAPTER V

PARENTS AND TEACHERS AS SIGNIFICANT OTHERS

The concept of significant others (which will be discussed in greater detail in the discussion chapter) was measured by asking the students to write down on the questionnaire responses to the following question: There are some people who are very important to us. What they think of us counts a lot. Who are the persons whose opinions of you are most important to you -- name them.

The students were then asked to write down the names and indicate who these persons were, i.e. father, mother, friends, relatives and so on.

The following relationship investigated only two methods by which the data were broken down. The data were coded as to whether parents were named or not named and whether teachers were named or not named.

The two breakdowns are independent; however, the data are presented to show both variables in the same table.

Significant others are used as independent or explanatory variables. That is, given a student names his parents, does this relate or explain his aspirations or his perceived ability?

Significant Others and Educational Correlates

The relationship between significant others and students' educational aspirations is shown in Table 30.

Table 30. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and students' educational aspirations.

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Teachers) Not Mentioned	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Educational Aspirations				
Below College	58 (58)	35 (27)	46 (54)	41 (41)
College Level	42 (42)	65 (73)	54 (46)	59 (59)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	686	54	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	296	161	507

In regards to parents as significant others, if mentioned, the educational aspirations were high for the non-Indians. Specifically, if parents were mentioned, 65 percent of the non-Indians aspired to an above college level of education while only 42 percent of the Indians did so. Thus for Indians, 58 percent, aspired to a below college level education when parents were mentioned.

If parents were not mentioned, the proportion aspiring to an above college level education decreased for non-Indians, 59 percent. On the other hand, the proportion increased for Indians, 54 percent. Thus for the non-Indians, if parents were mentioned as significant others, level of aspiration increased while for Indians it decreased indicating that others persons were more significant in predicting educational aspirations for Indians.

The relationship for teachers as significant others was exactly the same as for parents, differing in degree only. In fact, for non-Indians, if teachers were mentioned, 73 percent aspired to a college level education and were less influential for Indians.

Table 31 shows the relationship between significant others and the importance of good grades. For non-Indians, there tended to be a relationship -- if parents were mentioned, then grades became more important, if not mentioned, grades became less important. For non-Indians, when parents were mentioned, 70 percent indicated grades as being very important, whereas 64 percent indicated grades as important when parents were not mentioned. For Indians on the other hand, the figures evened out, 56 and 57 percent indicated grades as important when parents were mentioned or not mentioned respectively.

Thus, parents did predict how important grades were going to be for non-Indians, but did not predict fo[illegible]ndians. Furthermore, the discrepancy was in favour of the non-Indians.

Additionally, more Indians indicated grades as not important in a greater proportion than non-Indians whether parents were mentioned or not.

Again, the relationship with teachers as significant others was exactly the same as for parents, differing in degree only.

Table 31. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the importance of getting good grades.

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Teachers) Not Mentioned	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Importance of Good Grades				
Very Important	56	70	57	64
	(55)	(74)	(55)	(66)
Important	35	26	30	30
	(35)	(24)	(34)	(29)
Not very important or don't matter	9	4	13	6
	(10)	(2)	(11)	(5)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	685	54	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	297	161	505

Significant Others and Correlates of the Perception of Parents

The relationship between significant others and parents' educational aspirations is shown in Table 32. If parents were named as significant others, for non-Indians 60 percent indicated a college level education while for Indians the figure was 47 percent. However, if parents were not mentioned, 58 percent of the non-Indians (only a spread of 2 percentage points lower than if parents were named) indicated a college level education. For Indians, on the other hand, 65 percent indicated a college level education. Thus for non-Indians the trend was that if parents were named, slightly more indicated a higher level of educational aspirations. For Indians, college level aspirations obtained when parents were not named as significant others.

Table 32. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' educational aspirations.

Parents' Aspirations	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Teachers) Not Mentioned	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Below College	53 (43)	40 (25)	45 (43)	42 (35)
College Level	47 (57)	60 (75)	65 (57)	58 (65)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	687	51	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	297	160	507

For Indians the difference cannot be explained when teachers were named as significant others. No matter if teachers were named or not named, 57 percent in each case indicated a college level aspiration. In regards to non-Indians, the relationship was more defined. If teachers were named, 75 percent indicated a college level education while 65 percent indicated a college level when teachers were not named.

In both cases of parents and teachers as significant others, if they were named, they predicted higher perceived parental aspirations, but for the non-Indians only.

Table 33 represents the relationship between significant others and the degree to which parents are informed about school.

Table 33. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the degree to which parents are informed about school.

	Parents) Teachers)	Mentioned	Parents) Teachers)	Not Mentioned
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Always like to talk	30 (33)	45 (47)	36 (31)	35 (42)
Talk sometimes	52 (51)	42 (43)	38 (48)	48 (42)
Talk seldom or doesn't matter	18 (16)	13 (10)	26 (21)	17 (16)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	684	53	114
No. of Cases (T)	39	297	161	504

If parents were mentioned as significant others, the figures showed that 45 percent of the non-Indians indicated that parents always like to talk about school while only 30 percent of the Indians indicated highly informed parents. Conversely, 16 percent of the Indians indicated that parents "talk seldom of school or doesn't matter" -- while the comparable figure for non-Indians was 13 percent.

If parents were not mentioned, for non-Indians the proportion who indicated highly informed parents decreased to 35 percent while for Indians the proportion increased to 36 percent. Also, the proportion of Indians who indicated that parents talk seldom, increased to 26 percent while for non-Indians even though there was an increase, 17 percent, it was not so drastic.

Thus for non-Indians, if parents were mentioned, the degree to which parents were informed increased or was high, while for Indians was lower.

When teachers were named as significant others, this tended to be very much like that of parents as significant others. However, the difference tended to close somewhat -- 47 percent who mentioned teachers indicated that parents were highly informed while the figure was 42 percent when teachers were not named.

For Indians, on the other hand, the figures tended to be slightly in favour of the teachers as significant others -- 33 percent indicated parents as highly informed when teachers were named and 31 percent when teachers were not named.

Therefore, when teachers were named as significant others, the figures favoured the non-Indians while for the Indians, teachers did not appear to predict as well, i.e., the degree to which parents are informed was not related to any extend to whether teachers were named or not.

Significant others in relation to parents' rating of ability to complete college is shown in Table 34. The non-Indian sample figures showed that for both parents and teachers, if mentioned as significant others, perceived parents' rating of ability to complete college was high. For Indians, if parents were mentioned, 6[illegible] percent indicated that parents would rate them high on ability to complete college. When parents were not mentioned, however, the proportion increased to 69 percent. If teachers were mentioned, 65 percent indicated high ability to complete college and declined to 63 percent if teachers were not mentioned.

Table 34. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' rating of ability to complete college.

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Not Teachers) Mentioned	
	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
Ability to Complete College				
Yes definitely or perhaps	62 (65)	71 (74)	69 (63)	67 (68)
Not sure either way	30 (28)	19 (18)	26 (30)	19 (20)
Perhaps not or definitely not	8 (7)	10 (8)	5 (7)	14 (12)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	685	54	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	295	161	507

On the other hand, the relationship between significant others, and parents' rating of school ability (Table 35) evened out so that there was not a great deal of difference in proportions as to whether parents or teachers were named or not -- 2 percentage points difference in most cases. However, what was noteworthy was that for non-Indians, if parents were named, 35 percent indicated an above average ability while 31 percent indicated an above average ability when parents were not named. Specifically, parents tended to count more. For Indians, on the other hand, 39 percent indicated an above average ability if parents were named (which was higher than the non-Indians) but 41 percent indicated an above average ability when parents were not named. Specifically, parents did not count as much in predicting high ability for Indians.

Table 35. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' rating of school ability

	Parents) Teachers)	Mentioned	Parents) Teachers)	Not Mentioned
	I	NI	I	NI
	%	%	%	%
Ability				
Above average	39 (38)	35 (40)	41 (40)	31 (33)
Average	44 (55)	53 (50)	50 (44)	51 (55)
Below Average	17 (7)	12 (10)	9 (16)	18 (12)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	144	686	54	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	296	160	506

When teachers were named, the figures showed that 40 percent of the non-Indians indicated high ability while the figure was 33 percent when teachers were not named. For Indians, teachers as significant others did not count to the same extent - 38 percent when teachers were named, but 40 percent when teachers were not named.

Significant Others and Occupational Correlates

Relationships were done also between significant others and several aspects of occupations. Table 36 shows the relationship between significant others and occupational expectations.

Table 36. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and occupational expectations

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Teachers) Not Mentioned	
Occupations	I. %	NI. %	I. %	NI. %
High	50 (39)	66 (73)	57 (56)	55 (59)
Med.	26 (26)	18 (17)	37 (30)	28 (21)
Low	24 (35)	16 (10)	6 (14)	17 (20)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	68	452	30	67
No. of Cases (T)	23	196	77	325

If parents were mentioned, 66 percent of the non-Indians and 50 percent of the Indians indicated high occupational choice. If parents were not mentioned, 55 percent of the non-Indians indicated high occupational choice while 57 percent of the Indians indicated high occupational choice. Therefore, for Indians, if parents were not mentioned, occupational choice was higher than when parents were mentioned.

When teachers were mentioned as significant others, the same relationships obtained as with parents, but different in degree. Teachers for non-Indians seemed to count more than parents as significant others -- 66 percent for parents, 73 percent for teachers in regard to high occupational choice. For Indians, on the other hand, teachers did not count as much as parents -- 50 percent for parents, 39 percent for teachers in regard to high occupational choice.

The figures also indicated that regardless of who was chosen as significant others (parents or teachers), a large proportion of Indians, 24 and 35 percent respectively, have indicated low occupational choice and these figures in turn were higher than for non-Indians naming parents and teachers, but also higher than Indians and non-Indians who did not name parents or teachers. All across then, Indians chose other significant others rather than parents or teachers in regard to occupational choice.

Table 37 is the relationship between significant others and perceived ability for chosen job. The overall relationship was that regardless of whether parents were named or not, there was little difference in perceived ability. There was a relationship however between Indians and non-Indians, the latter showed higher occupational ability.

If teachers were mentioned, there was a better relationship. Specifically, if teachers were mentioned, the proportion of students indicating an above average ability increased. However, the figures were in favour of the non-Indians.

Table 37. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and perceived ability for chosen occupation.

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Teachers) Not Mentioned	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Occupational Ability				
Above average	29 (33)	36 (40)	28 (28)	38 (34)
Average	38 (44)	43 (41)	42 (37)	36 (43)
Below Average	15 (13)	8 (6)	13 (15)	7 (8)
Don't know	18 (10)	13 (13)	17 (20)	19 (15)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	142	686	53	113
No. of Cases (T)	39	296	158	506

The relationship between significant others and the degree to which students have made up their minds about their choice of occupation is given in Table 38.

If parents were named, Indians and non-Indians indicated in equal proportions that their minds were made up -- 24 and 25 percent respectively. However, for non-Indians, while the proportion was higher than when parents were not mentioned, 21 percent, for Indians the proportion was lower than when parents were not mentioned, 31 percent.

Noteworthy was that for the Indians when parents were mentioned, 30 percent indicated that they had given a job little thought while for non-Indians only 17 percent indicated same and in both cases the proportions were higher than when parents were not named.

When teachers were named as significant others, 35 percent of the Indians indicated that they had made up their minds while 26 percent of the non-Indians indicated same. And these figures were higher than when teachers were not named. Thus, teachers did predict and tended to predict better for Indians than non-Indians as also shown by the proportions indicating that they had given a job little thought. Although the figures were in favour of the teachers, they were also in favour of the non-Indians.

Table 38. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and the degree to which students have made up their minds about occupational choice.

	Parents) Teachers)	Mentioned	Parents) Teachers)	Not Mentioned
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Mind made up	24 (35)	25 (26)	31 (23)	21 (24)
Not sure	46 (48)	58 (59)	51 (48)	63 (58)
Have given job little thought	30 (17)	17 (15)	18 (29)	16 (18)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	144	682	51	112
No. of Cases (T)	40	295	157	502

Significant Others and Parental Correlates

Table 39 represents the relationship of significant others and sources of expected help regarding choice of occupation.

Table 39. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and sources of expected help regarding choice of occupation.

	Parents) Teachers)	Mentioned	Parents) Teachers)	Not Mentioned
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Expected Help				
Friends	48 (50)	56 (59)	37 (43)	46 (52)
Friends & relatives	16 (20)	15 (15)	18 (16)	29 (18)
No one or some other person	16 (17)	10 (9)	15 (16)	10 (11)
Don't know	20 (13)	19 (17)	30 (25)	15 (19)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	145	684	54	112
No. of Cases (T)	40	295	161	504

The relationship showed that for both parents and teachers, if they were named, then the proportion of students indicating parents as an expected source of help increased and was not only higher than other sources, but was also proportionately higher than when parents and teachers were not named.

The figures however were in favour of the non-Indians -- 56 percent indicated parents as sources of help while 48 percent of the Indians indicated same.

If parents were mentioned, 20 percent of the Indians and 19 percent of the non-Indians indicated that they didn't know any sources of help. However, for Indians when parents were not mentioned, 30 percent indicated they didn't know any sources of help while only 15 percent of the non-Indians indicated same. Thus, if parents were mentioned, Indians and non-Indians were even in indicating that they didn't know any sources of help. When parents were not mentioned on the other hand, fewer non-Indians than Indians (15 and 30 percent respectively) indicated that they didn't know any sources of help. A similar relationship obtained when teachers were mentioned or not mentioned as significant others.

The more direct questions in relation to parents is given in Table 40 -- students were asked to indicate the degree of parental encouragement regarding occupational choice.

For non-Indians, if parents were mentioned, 62 percent indicated that parents encouraged them while 51 percent indicated parental encouragement when parents were not mentioned. Indians showed the same pattern but to a lesser degree. If parents were mentioned, 52 percent indicated parental encouragement while 45 percent indicated same when parents were not mentioned.

noteworthy was that 10 percent of the Indians not mentioning parents as significant others indicated that parents have discouraged them, while for the non-Indians the figure was 7 percent.

Table 40. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parental encouragement regarding occupational choice

	Parents) Teachers) Mentioned		Parents) Not Teachers) Mentioned	
Parental Encouragement	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Has encouraged	52 (60)	62 (60)	45 (47)	51 (60)
Has neither encouraged nor discouraged	44 (35	36 (38)	45 (48)	42 (36)
Has discouraged	4 (5)	2 (2)	10 (5)	7 (4)
Total %	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases (P)	144	681	51	114
No. of Cases (T)	40	296	157	502

In regard to teachers as significant others, the figures even out. There was no difference between Indians and non-Indians if teachers were mentioned in relation to high parental encouragement - both represented 60 percent. For non-Indians, the degree of parental encouragement did not differ regardless of whether teachers were mentioned or not, e.g. 60 percent indicated parental encouragement whether teachers were named or not.

The one main difference seemed to be that for Indians who named teachers, 60 percent indicated that parents had given encouragement, but only 47 percent indicated same when teachers are not named. Thus parents as significant others did predict for both Indians and non-Indians and teachers predicted only for Indians.

Significant Others and Grade Point Average

Several calculations were done whereby grade point average was the dependent variable, i.e. the variable being explained. Parents as significant others entered all these calculations.

Table 41 shows the relationship between parents as significant others and teachers as significant others on grade point average.

What was noteworthy was not necessarily the statistical tests, although these did say something in and of themselves, but also the trends that appeared in the tables.

If both parents were mentioned, non-Indians had a higher average than any other category, particularly in conjunction with teachers being mentioned. Indians also had a higher average when parents and teachers were mentioned. However, for Indians the average was 59 percent and for non-Indians 68 percent -- a difference of 9 percentage points on grade point average.

Table 41. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others on grade point average

	No Response or No Parents Mentioned		Both Parents	
	I.	NI.	I.	NI.
Teachers				
No response	$\bar{X}^*$ 51 N = 22	$\bar{X}$ 57 N = 11	-	-
	t+ = .8 N.S.			
Teachers Mentioned	$\bar{X}$ 50 N = 12	$\bar{X}$ 63 N = 48	$\bar{X}$ 59 N = 21	$\bar{X}$ 68 N = 212
	t = 2.9 (p. $<$.01, 2 tail)		t = 2.58 (p. $<$.01, 2 tail)	
Teachers Not Mentioned	$\bar{X}$ 53 N = 46	$\bar{X}$ 60 N = 74	$\bar{X}$ 51 N = 84	$\bar{X}$ 63 N = 352
	t = 2.76 (p. $<$.01, 2 tail)		t = 6.15 (p. $<$.001, 2 tail)	

$\bar{X}$* = mean
t^+ = test value
N = No. of cases
N.S. = Not significant at .05 level, 2 tail test.

The tendency was that if parents and teachers were not mentioned as significant others, grade point average decreased for both Indians and non-Indians.

For non-Indians when both parents were mentioned, grade point averarage was the same as when only teachers were mentioned - 63 percent. Thus, teachers alone or parents alone did not lead to higher averages.

Indians, as indicated previously, when both parents and teachers were mentioned, had a high grade point average -- 59 percent. However, given these two conditions did not exist, teachers alone did not predict averages. It would appear that Indians then had other significant others because the next highest average was 53 percent corresponding to the cell showing no parents and no teachers mentioned.

Thus, for Indians and non-Indians, parents and teachers predicted higher grade averages while teachers and parents alone did not. However, parents alone for non-Indians were better than when parents were not mentioned and teachers were not mentioned.

On the other hand, for Indians parents or teachers by themselves did not predict as well as when teachers were not mentioned, in which case the average was 53 percent -- the next highest average.

Table 42 shows the relationship between parents as significant others and students perceived ability in school on grade average. The trend was much clearer than in the previous case i.e. Table 41.

In regards to ability, if students (both Indian and non-Indian)saw themselves as above average, then the actual grade was such as to correspond. Specifically, the actual grade average was in line with perceived ability. However, in each case non-Indians had a higher average than Indians.

Table 42 The relationship between parents as significant others and students' rating or school ability in relation to class on grade point average

Abilities	No Response or No Parents Mentioned		Both Parents Mentioned	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Above average	$\bar{X}$ 61 N = 21	$\bar{X}$ 66 N = 23	$\bar{X}$ 61 N = 21	$\bar{X}$ 72 N = 110
	$t = 1.37$ (N.S.)		$t = 2.91$ (p. $<$ .01, 2 tail)	
Average	$\bar{X}$ 50 N = 43	$\bar{X}$ 60 N = 93	$\bar{X}$ 53 N = 61	$\bar{X}$ 64 N = 411
	$t = 4.15$ (p. $<$ .001,2 tail)		$t = 5.35$(p $<$ .001, 2 tail)	
Below Average	$\bar{X}$ 42 N = 12	$\bar{X}$ 54 N = 15	$\bar{X}$ 45 N = 22	$\bar{X}$ 53 N = 36
	$t = 2.27$ (p. $<$ .05, 2 tail)		$t = 2.21$ (p. $<$ .05, 2 tail)	

For non-Indians who mentioned parents and classified themselves as above or average ability, grade averages were higher than when parents were not mentioned. However, there was no difference whether parents were mentioned or not if they indicated a below average ability. It should be noted, nevertheless, that the grades at the below average - 54 and 53 percent - were still above the actual passing grade of 50.

For Indians, if they indicated an above average ability, it made no difference on grade average whether parents were named or not. At the average level, parents tended to be higher. At the below average level, parents also tended to be higher in their effect on grade average. However, in contrast to the non-Indians, the averages of 42 and 45 percent were below a pass grade of 50.

The relationship between parents as significant others and parents' rating of school ability on grade point average is given in Table 43. Again the trend was clear, at least for non-Indians. Grade averages descended from high to low as perceived ability decreased from above average to below average. Further, in each case if parents were mentioned, averages were higher than when parents were not mentioned for all categories of perceived ability. The one exception falls at the below average level of ability -- if parents were not mentioned, the average (55 percent) was slightly higher than when parents were mentioned (53 percent), but still in both cases above a passing grade.

For Indians, generally the same trend as with non-Indians existed, with one notable exception. Indians who mentioned parents and indicated very high ability only received an average of 51 percent. The figure was lower than when parents were not mentioned -- 57 percent. Additionally, Indians had a lower grade average than non-Indians in all categories.

The overall average for all Indians and non-Indians was 53 and 64 percent respectively -- a difference of 11 percentage points in favour of the non-Indians (not shown in table).

Table 43. The relationship between parents' and significant others and parents' rating of school ability on grade point average

	No Response or No Parents Mentioned		Both Parents Mentioned	
Parents' Rating of Ability	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Among the Best	$\bar{X}$ 57	$\bar{X}$ 70	$\bar{X}$ 51	$\bar{X}$ 74
	N = 12	N = 10	N = 13	N = 65
	t = 1.56 (N.S.)		6 ~ 3.69 .$<$.01, 2 tail)	
Above average	$\bar{X}$ 54	$\bar{X}$ 66	$\bar{X}$ 58	$\bar{X}$ 71
	N = 21	N = 30	N = 22	N = 139
	t = 2.69 (p.$<$.01, 2 tail)		5 = 3.79 (p.$<$.01, 2 tail)	
Average	$\bar{X}$ 50	$\bar{X}$ 60	$\bar{X}$ 54	$\bar{X}$ 63
	N = 40	N = 69	N = 49	N = 307
	t = 3.51 (p. $<$.01, 2 tail)		t = 4.54 (p$<$.001, 2 tail)	
Below average	$\bar{X}$ 49	$\bar{X}$ 55	$\bar{X}$ 48	$\bar{X}$ 53
	N = 7	N = 19	N = 14	N = 51
	t = 1.24 (N.S.)		t = 1.2 (N.S.)	

SUMMARY

The present chapter investigated the concept of significant others. The data were broken down to use only two categories -- parents and teachers. Each table was essentially two tables combined so as to show comparative predictive strength of parents and teachers.

30. If parents or teachers were mentioned as significant others, for non-Indians educational aspirations increased, i.e. a greater proportion of non-Indians aspired to a college level education than did Indians.

31. The relationship between significant others and the importance of grades showed that for non-Indians if parents or teachers were named the importance of grades increased. However, for Indians, regardless of whether parents or teachers were named or not had no bearing on the degree to which students regarded the importance of grades.

32. For non-Indians, the relationship was only slightly in favor of higher parental educational aspirations when parents were named as significant others as opposed to when parents were not named. Specifically parents' educational aspirations were only slightly higher when parents were named as significant others as opposed to when they were not named.

For Indians on the other hand, the reverse relationship was true. That is, parents' educational aspirations were higher when parents were not named as significant others.

For Indians, it did not matter whether teachers were named or not -- there was no relationship between teachers being named or not and parents educational aspirations. For non-Indians, however, if teachers were named as significant others, parents' educational aspirations were high.

33. For non-Indians, if parents were mentioned as significant others, then the degree to which parents were informed about school increased. The same relationship obtained when teachers were named as significant others.

For Indians, the relationship, when parents were named, showed that the degree to which parents were informed dropped. When teachers were named as significant others, the degree to which parents were informed increased slightly.

In both cases (i.e. when parents or teachers were named), the degree to which parents were informed was in favor of the non-Indian over the Indians.

34. The relationship between significant others and parents rating of ability to complete college was such that if parents were named, ability increased -- for non-Indians. For Indians on the other hand, the tendency was for ability to increase when parents were not named.

When teachers were named, ability increased and for non-Indians showed a stronger relationship than when parents were named. Also, for Indians, when teachers were named, ability increased. Overall, however, the relationship for both Indians and non-Indians was not strong. Specifically, regardless of whether parents or teachers were named or not as significant others, ability still tended to be high.

35. The relationship between parents and teachers as significant others and parents' rating of school ability was not strong. However, there was a slight tendency for non-Indians, if parents or teachers were mentioned, parents' rating of ability increased. For Indians, on the other hand, there was a slight tendency that parents' rating of ability increased when parents or teachers were _not_ mentioned as significant others.

36. For non-Indians, if parents or teachers were mentioned as significant others, students chose high status occupations. For Indians, if parents or teachers were _not_ mentioned, high status occupations were chosen.

Additionally, the relationship, when teachers were mentioned was stronger than when parents were mentioned as significant others for non-Indians. For Indians, the relationship was stronger when parents were mentioned than when teachers were mentioned as significant others.

37. For both Indians and non-Indians, whether parents were named or not named as significant others had little bearing on the degree of perceived ability in regard to occupational choice. If teachers were named, there was a tendency to favor higher occupational choice for both Indians and non-Indians. Overall, the Indians, however, lagged behing the non-Indians.

38. The relationship between significant others and the degree to which students have made up their minds about their choice of occupations showed that for non-Indians if parents were named, the proportion who indicated that their minds were made up was higher than when parents were not named. For Indians, the reverse was true -- more Indians indicated that their minds were made up when parents were not named.

When teachers were named, the relationship was the same for both non-Indians and Indians and even stronger for the Indians -- given teachers were named as significant others, the degree to which students indicated that their minds were made up about their future occupation increased.

39. Significant others in relation to expected sources of help in regards to occupational choice showed that for both Indians and non-Indians, that if parents were named as significant others, parents were also named as sources of help. The proportion of Indians naming parents, however, was less than for non-Indians. Further, the proportion of Indians who indicated they didn't know any sources of help was greater than the non-Indians particularly when parents were not named as significant others.

The relationship with teachers as significant others was the same as that of parents as significant others. However, for Indians and non-Indians, teachers showed a stronger relationship than parents.

40. Parents and teachers as significant others in relation to parental encouragement regarding occupation of choice showed that for both Indians and non-Indians (the latter, however, showed a stronger relationship) if parents were named as significant others, parental encouragement increased.

In regard to non-Indians, whether teachers were named or not had no bearing on the degree of parental encouragement. For Indians, on the other hand, if teachers were named as significant others, parental encouragement increased or was higher than when parents were not named.

41. When parents and teachers were taken together, i.e. both were used as predictors, it was possible to investigate whether parents or teachers complemented each other or were independent. The variable being explained was students' grade point average.

The data showed if both parents and teachers were mentioned as significant others, grade point average was high. This relationship was true for both Indians and non-Indians; however, even though both were high, the grade point average for Indians was lower than that for non-Indians.

When parents were mentioned but no teachers mentioned, grade point average was still high for the non-Indians.

Overall therefore, for non-Indians, when both teachers and parents were mentioned, grades were high. Grades were also high (but not as high as the combination of both) when only parents or only teachers were mentioned.

For Indians, grades were high when both parents and teachers were mentioned as significant others. Parents or teachers alone did not have a great deal of bearing on grades.

42 The relationship between parents as significant others and students rating of school ability showed an overall relationship that if students (both Indians and non-Indians) perceived themselves as having a high ability, averages were high; if ability was average, grades were lower and if ability was below average, grades were lower still. Specifically, the correspondence was high between perceived ability and grades.

Ability in combination with parents as significant others showed that for non-Indians, if parents were significant others, grades were higher than when parents were not named as significant others. And this relationship obtained at all levels of ability.

For Indians, on the other hand, parents did not seem to contribute to the relationship to any extent -- parents as significant others enhance grade averages to a lesser degree than for the non-Indians. For instance, if ability was above average, grade point average was equal whether parents were mentioned or not.

43. The relationship between parents as significant others and parents rating of school ability on grade point average showed a similar but even stronger trend than in the previous case.

The overall trend for both Indians and non-Indians was that as parents' rating of ability decreased from "among the best" to below average, grades decreased accordingly. Thus, there was good correspondence between ratings of ability and actual grades.

However, the trend was also that if parents were significant others, the grades were higher than when parents were not mentioned. This was particularly so for non-Indians. For Indians, if parents were mentioned, the relationship was not as strong as it was for non-Indians.

43. (a) The overall averages for grades for the two samples showed that Indians had a much lower grade point average than non-Indians -- 53 and 64 percent respectively.

Chapter VI

PARENTS' EMPLOYMENT

Many of the variables previously discussed are now placed within the context of parental employment. Time of employment was used rather than a prestige scale based on occupation because (1) an Indian may be qualified as a carpenter, for example, and have a prestige score to match; however, he may not work, and (2) most Indians fell into low socio-economic categories, thus the prestige scale was a restricted one for Indians.

Parents' Employment and Significant Others

The relationship between parents' employment and significant others in shown in Table 44. The trend was that for Indians, if parents worked full time, parents were named as significant others and decreased with seasonal or no employment. For non-Indians, on the other hand, there was no effect to speak of regarding employment. Specifically, regardless of parental employment, non-Indians will tend to name parents in pretty much equal proportions.

Table 44. The relationship between parents' employment and parents as significant others.

Significant Others	Full Time I %	 NI %	Seasonal I %	 NI %	None I %	 NI %
Parent Mentioned	77	85	73	86	68	90
Parents not Mentioned	23	15	27	14	32	10
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	53	645	82	77	62	68

In regards to teachers (no table shown) Indians named teachers as significant others as parents' employment increased, i.e. given parents worked full time, teachers were named more than if parents worked seasonally or not at all. With non-Indians, on the other hand, they not only named teachers in greater proportion than did the Indians, but named them in equal proportions regardless of parents' time of employment. Thus for non-Indians, parents' work patterns have no bearing on naming teachers as significant others.

Parents' Employment and Educational Correlates

Table 45 gives the relationship between parents' employment and students' ability in relation to close friends. The pattern was that for Indians as parents' employment decreased, the proportion of Indians indicating an above average ability and average ability decreased. Of special note was that for Indians whose parents did not work, the proportion of Indians indicating a below average ability was quite high - 26 percent, and was also high for seasonal employment - 19 percent.

Table 45. The relationship between parents' employment and the student's ability in relation to class friends.

Abilities with Class Friends	Full Time I %	Full Time NI %	Seasonal I %	Seasonal NI %	None I %	None NI %
Above average	26	21	24	18	20	17
Average	62	72	57	75	54	70
Below Average	12	7	19	7	26	13
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	657	93	79	70	71

The relationships followed a similar pattern for non-Indians, but was not as marked, and the proportion of non-Indians indicating an above or average ability tended to be higher than for Indians (taken as a sum). However, noteworthy was that for the above average category, Indians were higher than non-Indians in all types of employment patterns.

Table 46 gives the relationship to parents' educational aspirations. The trend was that for parents working full time, 68 percent of the Indians indicated a college level aspiration while 72 percent of the non-Indians' parents aspired to a college level education. At the seasonal level, Indians were higher than non-Indians but the marked difference was at the no work level -- 46 percent of the Indians' parents aspired to a college level education while 65 percent of the non-Indians' parents aspired to a college level.

Table 46. The relationship between parents' employment and parents' educational aspirations

Parents' Aspirations	Full Time		Seasonal		None	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Below College	32	28	48	53	54	35
College Level	68	72	52	47	46	65
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	657	92	79	71	71

Thus the trend again was definitely that for Indians, if parents worked full time, the level of parents' educational aspirations was high, and if parents did not work, parents' aspiration levels were low.

For non-Indians, on the other hand, the trend was not so clear. If parents worked full time or not at all, parents' aspiration levels were still high favouring a college level education. If parents' work was seasonal, a below college level was aspired to.

The degree to which parents were informed about school is shown in Table 47. The figures showed that for both Indians and non-Indians that full-time work led to having higher informed parents, but that Indians lagged behind the non-Indians in this category. In the "talk sometimes" category, Indians tended to be ahead of non-Indians, but parents' working time had no bearing as all percentages were quite even for both Indians and non-Indians.

Table 47. The relationship between parents' employment and the degree to which parents are informed.

Parental Interest	Full Time		Seasonal		None	
	I %	NI %	I %	NI %	I %	NI %
Always like to talk	46	46	30	36	20	33
Talk sometimes	49	41	50	49	50	47
Talk seldom or doesn't matter	5	13	20	15	30	20
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	655	92	79	70	70

An important aspect was that as parents worked full-time, the proportion of cases indicating that parents talk seldom decreased, but increased as parents did not work. For instance, the proportion of Indians' parents who did not work and talked seldom represented 30 percent of the Indians and 20 percent of the non-Indians.

Overall, the relationship was that full time work led to more informed parents and no work led to less informed parents, and that the Indians lagged behind the non-Indians.

Parents' Employment and Correlates of Occupation

Table 48 shows the relationship to parental encouragement. The pattern that emerged was that for Indians, if parents worked full time, parental encouragement was high and if parents did not work at all, parental encouragement was low. For non-Indians, on the other hand, parental encouragment was high regardless of parents' work, and higher still than for the Indians.

Table 48. The relationship between parents' employment and parental encouragement reaarding occupational choice

	Full Time		Seasonal		None	
	I	NI	I	NI	I	NI
Parental Encouragement	%	%	%	%	%	%
Has given encouragement	56	61	52	48	36	60
Has not encouraged nor discouraged	40	36	42	48	58	36
Has discouraged	4	3	6	4	6	4
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	57	651	92	79	66	70

The proportion of those students indicating that parents had discouraged them was low and was independent of parents' work, i.e. parents' work had no effect on parental discouragement. In all, the Indians again lagged behind the non-Indians.

The relationship, Table 49, between parents' employment and students' ability for their chosen occupation showed a similar trend to previous tables. Specifically, Indians were high on ability if parents worked full time and low on ability if parents did not work. Furthermore, the proportion of Indians who indicated that they don't know their ability increased as parents worked less.

Table 49. The relationship between parents' employment and ability for occupation of choice

	Full Time		Seasonal		None	
	I	NI	I	NI	I	NI
Ability for Job						
Above average	32	36	27	42	25	34
Average	45	44	37	30	31	39
Below average	9	6	17	14	17	14
Don't know	14	14	19	14	27	13
Total %	100	100	100	100	100	100
No. of Cases	56	656	92	79	67	71

For non-Indians, on the other hand, their perceived ability for their occupation had nothing to do with their parents' work patterns -- proportions tend to be fairly evenly distributed between all categories.

SUMMARY

The present chapter investigated correlates of parents employment -- whether parents worked full time, seasonally, or not at all. Parents' occupation in regards to a status level of measurement was not used because (1) very few Indian parents fell into the high prestige occupations e.g. professionals and (2) the high degree of Indians who did not have any employment at all.

44. The relationship between parents employment and significant others showed opposite relationship between Indians and non-Indians. For Indians, as employment increased from none to full time, the proportion to which parents were named as significant others increased. For non-Indians as employment increased from none to full time, the proportion which parents were named decreased. However, for both Indians and non-Indians, parents were named proportionately more than not. Further, non-Indians named parents more often for all categories of employment than did **Indians**.

45. The relationship between parents' employment and students' self ratings of school ability showed that for Indians as parents employment increased so did perceived ability. For non-Indians on the other hand, there was a similar relationship but much weaker. Specifically, parents' employment had less effect on perceived ability.

46. Parents' employment in relation to parents' educational aspirations showed that for Indians as parents' employment increased

from none to full time, aspirations also increased. For non-Indians, the relationship was not as strong, i.e., the tendency was to have high educational aspirations regardless of whether parents worked full time or not at all.

47. The relationship between parents' employment and the degree to which parents were informed about school matters showed similar relationships for both Indians and non-Indians with the latter showing a weaker relationship. Specifically, for Indians as employment increased, so did the degree to which parents liked to keep informed about school matters. For non-Indians the degree to which parents liked to keep informed was high even when parents did not work at all.

48. Parents' employment in relation to parental encouragement regarding occupational choice showed again that for Indians as parents' employment increased so did parental encouragement. However, for non-Indians parental encouragement tended to be high regardless of parents' employment.

49. The relationship between parents' employment and students' self ratings of ability for their occupation showed that as employment increased ability also increased -- for the Indians. For non-Indians, parents' employment had little relationship to perceived ability in regards to their choice of occupation.

Chapter V11

DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The primary concern of the study was to investigate educational and occupational aspirations and expectations. To arrive at such explanations for aspirations and expectations a number of different approaches were used, i.e., a number of relationships were analyzed.

The purpose of the present chapter is to look at the data as a whole. Specifically, rather than looking at individual cases (i.e., tables) the data are now taken together as a total picture.

An attitude can be defined as a positive or negative orientation toward some object. An attitude is the internal organization of an act. Thus we behave towards persons and things because certain attitudes are held towards these persons or things.

Equally aspirations can be towards something. Thus aspirations are an orientation -- attitudes.[1] More specifically, as the object of an aspiration is a goal the concept can be expanded to refer to systems of attitudes. A system of attitudes can be defined as a set of attitudes that are interrelated.[2] Thus a person can have attitudes towards education, occupations, parents, teachers, frinds, income and school. All these put together form a system. The system is such that to change an attitude within it may also change other attitudes -- in other words the attitudes within the system are interdependent.

---

[1] William P. Kuvlesky and Robert C. Bealer, 'A Clarification of the Concept "Occupational Choice"'. Paper read at the Rural Sociological Society Meetings, Macdonald College, P.Que., August, 1964.

[2] Theodore Newcomb, Ralph H. Turner, Philip E. Converse, Social Psychology, New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965, P. 132.

There is a difference between an aspiration and an expectation. An aspiration is usually desired and thus is goal orientated. An expectation need not have these same qualities as an aspiration. An expectation may reflect the opportunities available at a particular time and place.[3] In Chapter II, it was pointed out that aspirations and expectations need not be congruent -- a person not only aspires but also expects a certain level of attainment.

The present study has attempted, therefore, to look at some variables that would fit such a system of attitudes by looking at the relationship between them. Additionally the study is comparative in that it was possible to tell if Indians were different and how by being able to compare with non-Indian counterparts.

The concept of significant other can be explained from the point of view of role. A role does not imply a single individual. A role is a relationship of shared expectations between two or more people. A person plays the role of son or daughter and cannot do so if there are no parents or guardians implicated. A person cannot play the role of student unless teachers are implicated. Thus the performance of any role involves other individuals. Within any role relationships, on the other hand, certain persons can stand out more than others -- the role player takes into account other persons. These others that "stand out" however, need not be directly implicated in an interaction situation.

---

[3] Kuvlesky and Bealer, op. cit.

Some persons may take into account certain others who are not known to them personally but know them indirectly. For instance, a child could look upon a famous hockey player as being important to him and even though he does not know the hockey player personally still takes him into account in his own behavior system.

Significant others are important in the development of self concept. Significant others thus form an audience whose judgements are most influential. And the demands of such persons (as perceived by the actor) are such that the actor cannot afford to lose their support.[4] Behaviors can be such as to please their significant others (even when unknown to these significant others). Often older persons to children are regarded as omnipotent -- bigger, stronger, faster, skills and intelligence. Thus a child's parents, teachers, older brother relative and so on can be an object of hero-worship.[5]

---

[4] Tamotsu Shibutani, Society and Personality, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1961, p.339.

[5] Ibid., p, 509.

There is a high degree of consensus between the mass media, educators, social scientists, government, and minority groups themselves that education is of prime importance to elevate minority groups and or poverty groups from their present situation. Within modern society there is also a strong correlation between education and occupations. As societies progress, the correlation becomes even stronger. For example, before the advent of machinery, all that was required to remove snow from city streets was a lot of manpower with shovels. Today with the more sophisticated methods of snow removal a higher level of education is required to operate the more complicated machinery. With technology making advances in such old trades as carpentry, plumbing, electricity, even greater levels of education will be required to qualify in such trades in the future, for example if a child does not make a decision about a future job or education he is likely to end up in an occupation that is neither rewarding nor very important to society. Further more, such jobs become obsolete quickly because they can easily be replaced by machines.[6]

The present study investigated educational and occupational aspirations and expectations. To explain these concepts a number of relationships were investigated. These relationships however, used only two variables or concepts at a time. The analysis of two variables enables easier interpretation of the data. On the other hand, it also creates other problems in that more relationships are required to see the whole picture. Other methods of statistical analysis would have reduced the data, but at the same time made it more difficult for many persons to have understood. Most people would have an understanding of a percentage, but not all people have an understanding of a correlation coefficient, yet the latter can reduce much data into one number while tables reported in percentages require many percentage figures.

---

[6] Archibald O. Haller, et al., "Rural Youth Need Help in Choosing Occupations", Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Circular Bulletin 235, East Kensing, 1963.

The overall finding was that there were many differences to more or lesser degrees between Indians and non-Indians. The findings also pointed out that the data were usually in "favor" of the non-Indian. The word "favor" was placed in quotations because for the most part the data were looked at from one perspective. However, it will also be discussed that these differences may not be so drastic if looked at from another perspective, i.e. whether the data are looked at from the point of view of white society or Indian society.

The educational aspirations of Indians were not only lower than non-Indians, but also the educational expectations tended to go along with it. Specifically, for Indians, if aspirations were low, so were their expectations. Non-Indians, on the other hand, showed higher aspirations and expectations. That is, a high proportion of non-Indians not only aspired to a college level education but also expected a college level education.

In following this through the findings showed that non-Indians tended to aspire to an education higher than their parents while Indians did not. Similar findings were also found when students ratings of how their parents saw them in relation to school ability and to ability to complete college as predictors of aspirations. For non-Indians, if parents rated them high on ability, there was a corresponding high educational aspiration. And if parents rated them low on ability then aspirations tended to remain high. For Indians, on the other hand, if parents' ratings of ability were high then aspirations were high (but not as high as for non-Indians) and when ratings of ability were low then aspirations were also low. For non-Indians, therefore, there was a tendency that students' aspirations were "running ahead" of their parents' ratings while for Indians the correspondence was closer.

Throughout the whole study the findings were consistent in that non-Indians tended to "run ahead" of their parents'perceptions of them. This held also in regards to occupations -- occupational expectations were high even when parents' ratings of their ability were low or when their parents' educational aspirations were low. Even though the findings were similar for the Indians, the relationship was not as strong.

Although there are other reasons which will be discussed further on, the differences in education and occupations may very well reflect different kinds of social systems. These differences cannot, on the other hand, be explained by the effects of socio-economic status as reflected in the prestige levels of parents' occupations. The findings were such that even when controlled for these levels, there were still differences between Indians and non-Indians. In other words, given parents had low prestige occupations, non-Indians still tended to have higher educational aspirations and high occupational expectations.

In "white" society, there is a strong belief that regardless of who you are or where you are that a person can rise in social status. These beliefs are not only observed directly from the people he knows but also vicariously from story books, television, or other forms of mass media.[7] The Indian, on the other hand, even though he can observe the same things may also see them from an entirely different perspective. The Indian has grown up in a society with a different set of values that may reflect not only a different cultural background but also the history of the Indian people themselves, particularly as this history reflects what has happened to the Indian since the white man has come on the scene. Therefore, even though an Indian may wish to rise in social status, he perceives the situation as a closed door where only a few of the "lucky ones" get through.

---

[7] Melvin L. DeFleur and Lois B. DeFleur, "The Relative Contribution of Television as a Learning Source for Children's Occupational Knowledge. American Sociological Review, Volume 32, No. 5. 1967, pp. 777-789.

Social mobility may also be seen from another perspective. There may be a ceiling effect in regard to education and occupations. In other words, the scale of values in respect to education and occupations may be different for Indians and non-Indians. For instance, the scale used to measure occupational prestige was one based on a national sample and thus reflects Canadian society at large. However, such a scale does not necessarily represent the ratings of a particular group. For instance, for an Indian, to choose an occupation whereby he can earn a decent living to provide for his family and his needs may be all he wants.[8] On the other hand, for non-Indians, the equivalent occupation may not be so attractive to him in terms of money and prestige. Therefore, for an Indian to expect to become a doctor is not just a matter of something he cannot reach, but may also be something he really doesn't want. Also, if there is a desire to change their socio-economic status, an Indian may not be willing to take the risks involved to bring about the change. Furthermore, there may exist group pressures by those within his own class position to block social mobility.[9] This may be a more plausible explanation than the "closed door" policy discussed previously and there is within the present study some indirect evidence to support this view. For non-Indians, the importance of getting good grades was directly related to educational aspirations -- as the importance of grades increased, so did aspirations. For Indians, on the other hand, there were two things that were noteworthy. First, regardless of what importance was placed on grades, there was little effect on educational aspirations. In other words, aspirations did not increase as the importance of grades increased. Second, regardless of the importance of grades, the greater proportion (i.e. over 50 percent) had educational aspirations below college. (data in Table 6)

---

[8] In some data that is unpublished, of a total of 115 Indian heads of households who responded to the question, "If you had your choice, what kind of work or job would you prefer to have?", 67 percent named occupations that would fall in a medium and low prestige level, e.g. mechanic, woodsman, laborer.

However, though the ceiling yet exists, it does not mean that it will be the same in the future. As social change occurs, there may also be a concomitant change in the nature of occupations desired.

Further evidence was seen in the students' rating of school ability. For non-Indians as their perceived ability increased so did their educational aspirations. For Indians, there was a similar relationship to that of the importance of grades. More Indians aspire to a below college level education regardless of their ability. Therefore, an Indian can claim he has high ability but does not correlate with his level of aspiration. Said another way, the Indians are not using their ability to their fullest capacity. (See Table 9) A similar pattern also appeared for the relationship between their perceived ability for chosen job and their choice of occupation.

---

[9] Ephraim Harold Mizruchi: "Aspiration and Poverty: A Neglected Aspect of Merton's Anomie." The Sociological Quarterly, Volume 8, No. 4, 1967 pp. 439-446.

The concept of risk is interesting in this context because it may help to explain why Indians who leave the reserve and settle in towns do not wish to see the reserve system disappear because if the job should go "sour" he has the reserve to return to. Thus, he eliminates much of the risk in finding employment off the reserve.

Another reason for these discrepencies might be due to the parents themselves. The present study did not solicit data on parents' education. However, other studies have pointed out that Indians generally have a low level of education.[10] In a study conducted in Chile there was evidence that there was a relationship between parents' educational level and educational aspirations for their children. The point at which the "take off" occurred was between the fifth year of elementary and the first year of secondary school.[11] What this means is that parents require an optimum amount of education before a separation occurs with traditional beliefs.

---

[10] A. A. MacDonald, Community Resources and Dimensions of Alienation on Indian Reserves (Preliminary Report), Extension Department, St. Francis Xavier University, Antigonish, N.S., May, 1967.

[11] Guillermo Briones and F. B. Waisanen. "Educational Aspirations, Modernization and Urban Integration." Preliminary draft of a paper to be read at the annual meetings of the American Sociological Association, Miami, 1966.

Parents therefore, can play an important role in the development of their childrens' aspirations. Further evidence is cited by Anderson et al.[12] These authors stated that parents have a direct effect on the aspirations of their children and also a major responsibility in providing a basic preparation for their children. They have also pointed out that some parents tend to make specific plans for their children while others make general plans regarding educational and occupational levels. When plans are made, it is likely that parents will also provide guidance. However, the other extreme would be that some parents after the minimum legal requirements for school are met do not really care about the future educational and occupational aspirations. As such, there is little or no positive guidance for the children.[13] Further evidence regarding parental encouragement within the context of the present study was shown in some of the tables that referred to the students' perceptions of parents. For instance, when parents' educational aspirations (re their children) was used as an independent or explanatory variable, the results showed that as parents' aspirations increased so did the degree to which parents were informed about school matters. However, for Indians the relationship was not as strong i.e. if parents aspirations were high, the degree to which parents were informed was not as high as that of non-Indians.

---

[12] Robert C. Anderson, Russell G. Mawby, Joe A. Miller, and Andrew L. Olson, "Parental Aspirations: A Key to the Educational and Occupational Achievements of Youth", Adult Leadership, May, 1965.

[13] Ibid.

The relationship between parents' educational aspirations and the degree to which parents give encouragement regarding the choice of occupation also showed a position relationship.[14] The Indians again showed a weaker relationship and in fact showed also a greater degree of neutrality. Specifically, a greater proportion of Indians showed that parents neither encourage nor discourage their children regarding choice of occupation. (See Chpater IV for other relationships regarding parental involvement).

Within the theoretical approach to the present paper, it is not whether parents give encouragement or not but more basically are parents themselves significant others to students and if they are, do they predict attitudes and behavior. The overall finding was that for non-Indians, if parents were mentioned as significant others, educational aspirations increased; the importance of achieving good grades increased; there was an increase in the aspirations of parents. In effect, if parents were mentioned as significant others, there was a tendency that the non-Indians were "higher" on the measurement of the different concepts than were the Indians. For Indians, it was often the case that they were "higher" on the different concepts being measured when parents were not mentioned.

---

[14] Some similar findings were found in another study. Parents'educational achievements were positively and significantly related to perceived parental encouragement and collage plans. William H. Sewell and Vimal P. Shah, "Parents' Education and Childrens' Educational Aspirations and Achievements." American Sociological Review, Vol. 33 No. 2, 1968, pp. 191-209. See also William P. Kuvlesky, " A Synthetic Overview of Research on Rural Youth's Projections for Occupational and Educational Attainment: A Progress Report" Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, San Francisco, 1969.

The findings when teachers were mentioned as significant others followed a similar pattern to that of parents as significant others for the non-Indian sample. The findings also followed a similar pattern for parents as significant others for the Indian sample. Specifically, parents and taachers seemed to both predict well for non-Indians but not for Indians.

However, the difference between parents and teachers as significant others should also be looked upon from the point of view that non-Indians mentioned parents 84 percent of the time and teachers 36 percent of the time (these percentages are not additive because both parents and teachers could have been mentioned). Indians mentioned parents as significant others 65 percent of the time and teachers 18 percent of the time. Thus, non-Indians mentioned parents and teachers more frequently than did Indians. However, the frequency of parents was high for both Indians and non-Indians and was by far the largest occurring significant other. Therefore, parents may just be more important as significant others than teachers but the importance may differ between Indians and non-Indians. Some evidence for the greater importance of parents for non-Indians over the teachers was given in the relationships taking into account grade point average. Even though teachers and parents taken together had a high grade point average, with parents alone, grade point average was still high.

However, overall in taking into account all the findings which included parents and teachers as significant others, it would appear that they complemented each other in regards to non-Indians.

For Indians, on the other hand, there seemed to be significant others that played a greater role than parents. The findings that parents as significant others often did not predict does not mean that parents are not important to the Indian child. It may mean, however, that they do not play as great a role in regards to their children's educational and occupational aspirations. Parents for the Indian may very well be most important but the influence may manifest itself in different ways e.g. the Indians' own value system.

In any case, one may ask, "What about students who mention parents as significant others and yet perceive low parental encouragement or low educational aspirations?"

Regardless of racial origin, such cases could be termed as parental delinquency. Specifically, delinquency would mean that if parents are looked upon as being important to their children, and yet the children perceive that they don't get any encouragement (reward value), then such parents could be regarded as being delinquent in not fulfilling the child's expectations. It was interesting for instance that 50 percent of the Indian sample did not make any choice of a future occupation while the figure for non-Indians was 36 percent. Therefore, what does a child do if he wants guidance regarding an occupation and the parents do not give it or at the very least, the child perceives that the parent does give him the needed encouragement. With Indians, however, part of the reason may also be a lack of knowledge about occupations or occupations as an ethic in and of themselves (i.e. occupations as a value). Within the context of the present study, an interesting relationship was that of using parents' occupation as a prediction or explanatory variable. In nearly all cases, for Indians, as parents' employment increased from none to seasonal to full time, there was also a positive increase with measured concepts. Specifically, as employment increased so did educational aspirations, so did the frequency with which parents were named as significant others, so did perceived ability, so did the degree to which students talked to parents and so did parental encouragement regarding occupational choice. For non-Indians, on the other hand, parents' employment did not predict i.e. regardless of whether parents worked full time or not at all, the measured concept (e.g. encouragement) still was high. This also may reflect differences in social mobility between Indians and non-Indians. For a non-Indian even if his parents do not work, he can still see his way out.

However, for Indians, the correlations regarding parental employment has some strong implications. Essentially, what the correlations are saying was that if you wish to raise aspirations or the degree of encouragement and so forth, parents must be employed full time.

There were some interesting findings also in relation to perceived ability. The overall descriptive statistics were that an equal proportion of Indians and non-Indians indicated an above average ability; 54 percent of the Indians and 67 percent of the non-Indians indicated an average ability; 21 percent of the Indians and 9 percent of the non-Indians indicated a below average ability. In using ability as an explanatory variable and whereby the school system is controlled (i.e.)Federal and Provincial schools) led to some findings that may be misleading on face value. The overall findings showed that Indians in Federal schools were "higher" on the measured concepts than Indians in Provincial schools. (See

Chapter III). For instance, as perceived ability increased so did the degree of importance of achieving good grades in school; so did the degree which parents rated them on ability to complete college; so did the degree to which parents were informed about school matters and so did the degree of perceived ability for their chosen job. Even though the direction of the relationships were the same in both cases, the Indians in Provincial schools lagged behind those in Federal schools. Specifically, the relationship was not as strong for Indians in Provincial schools. However, regardless of what school system the Indians were in, they were still below the levels for non-Indians. To explain these differences, it is necessary to go beyond the scope of the study. There are several possible conditions that could independently or together explain the differences. To begin with, of all the reserves included in the study, only two did not have a reserve school at any level. In other words, the children were integrated into the Provincial school system from the primary level. Other reserves, however, do have schooling at the early stages and later transfer to the Provincial schools.

The impact of different school systems could manifest itself in several ways. First is the matter of language. Indian children for the most part can speak little English when they begin school. An Indian child's command of the English language may not be as good as the non-Indian's. This may create some psychological imbalance and as a result do not see themselves on the same basis as non-Indians. However, language may only partially explain the situation, particularly for those Indians in Provincial schools who rated themselves below average. Other explanations are also needed to explain the differences in the school systems and parental involvement may be a contributing factor. The very nature of the two systems is different. The reserve school arose to meet the educational needs of the Indians. The reserve school can thus carry with it a certain degree of ego-involvement for Indian parents - specifically, the school is theirs and within their proximity. The Provincial school, on the other hand, does not afford the ego-involvement in that it is not only distant (i.e. difficult to reach) but in no way has the Indian any voice in school matters. Thus, the Provincial school is something foreign to them and even if or when they did go to attend any school functions, there may also exist not only a spatial distance but also a social distance.

There are other possible explanations why Indians in Provincial schools tend to be lower on the measured concepts than Indians in the reserve schools. First is the matter of age differences; second is competition and third is discrimination. These three factors could be psychologically uncomfortable to an Indian child to the extent that they not only affect his overall performance but create a situation where the child himself does not initiate interaction with his parents. And if the parents themselves are not aware of these factors, they also fail to initiate discussion with their children. These factors will be discussed in more detail. The actual figures for the present study were not calculated but inferred from observations of the data. The ages of Indian children for any particular grade tends to be higher than the average age for non-Indians. For instance, it was observed that in a class where most of the non-Indian students were around eleven years old, the Indian child may have been 14-15 years old. Thus, there was a situation where the Indian child was not only older, but brought also a set of experiences that the others did not have. The only others the child can share these experiences with are others who may be "like" him and these are not available as far as classroom companions. Thus, a situation arises where the child can be psychologically uncomfortable. The second reason was that of competition. A class where there is a mixture of Indian and non-Indian can be regarded as having a wide range of goal expectations and social backgrounds. Specifically, the competition for achievement may be greater in an integrated school than in a Federal school. Thus, another situation where the child can be psychologically uncomfortable. The third reason was that of discrimination. The students were asked to write down in a short sentence what going to this school (the one presently enrolled in) meant to him or her. Some Indian children gave a response similar to: "I don't like this school because I am an Indian." Some non-Indians, on the other hand, gave a response such as: "I don't like this school because there are Indians in it."

Discrimination can show itself in very subtle ways -- from not wanting to lend a pencil to an Indian or a peer group of non-Indians dispersing when an Indian attempts to join in. In any case, discrimination can have effects not only in the Indian child's academic performance, but also can be psychologically uncomfortable. These factors, if parents are not aware of them and combined with a lack of parental involvement in the Provincial school system may help to explain why there were differences between Indians in Provincial and Federal Schools.[15]

There was one noteable exception in students' perceived ability. Students in Provincial schools were higher than those in Federal schools in relation to parental encouragement regarding their occupational choice.

Such a situation may well indicate that parents can be more influential in certain sectors than in others. However, overall the data showed (see Chapter V) that if parents or teachers were named as significant others, for non-Indians, there was a corresponding increase in the measured concepts: increased educational aspirations, an increase in the degree to which grades were regarded as important, the degree to which parents were informed about school matters and occupational expectations, to name some. For the most part, for Indians the measured concepts tended to be higher when parents or teachers were not named as significant others.

---

[15] In the fear of imputing these explanations, the author discussed the differences with some Indians. The explanations were essentially theirs.

The situation does not say that parents are any less important to Indian children but does say that parents are less important regarding certain values. And within the context of the study, parents for Indian children have less or equal significance in regards to educational and occupational matters as do some other persons within the childrens' associations. Specifically, for Indian children, there seemed to be persons that had equal or more significance regarding the childrens' conduct than parents. The same holds for teachers as significant others -- teachers also for children do not count much.

Implications

The original problem was to investigate educational and occupational aspirations and expectations. To arrive at some explanations, many relationships were investigated. To have investigated Indians only would have uncovered different distributions but would not have said anything in regards to whether Indians were any different from anybody else. Therefore, the added dimension of comparing Indians and non-Indians not only revealed difference within each sample but also revealed differences between them. And these differences did exist. These differences were such as to show that educational aspirations and occupational expectations were not only higher for non-Indians, but there were also some other important differences in regard to parental employment, significant others, perceived ability and parental encouragement. Taken as a whole, a very basic question must be asked: "If Indians are different, how are they different?" To answer the question, it is necessary to say also that the differences are not ones of socio-economic status. As the study pointed out, even at levels of equivalent status (here defined as either parental employment or parents' occupation as measured according to a prestige scale), there were makred differences between Indians and non-Indians.

It would not be correct therefore to classify Indians as a sub-culture within a larger society, but rather a different culture within a larger society. Equally, Indians cannot be classified as a sub-culture of poverty just because they also happen to be poor (economically, at least).

Though the study was conducted on students, the implications are toward the adult population. Furthermore, with some noteable exceptions, the implications (although the approach to solutions may be different) would apply to both Indians and non-Indians. The emphasis will be given to Indians however as this was the main concern of the study.

1. The Role of Community Development Workers and Adult Educators. It is axiomatic that education is possibly the most important answer to the problems of poverty and in particular to the Indians. However, to attempt to persuade children directly to remain in school may be an exercise in futility. The thrust, first and foremost, is to develop programs directed at parents. It was somewhat anomolous to find that parents were the most often named as significant others yet did not predict aspirations or other measured concepts. Specifically, parents can mean a lot to a child but if the parent is not reciprocating then the parent is delinquent. Thus, programs should be developed to create an awareness on the part of parents of their role in the development of their children in regards to education and occupations. To educate people about education is not a simple task however. The problem of deferred gratification must be circumvented. Deferred gratification refers essentially to doing something now to be rewarded at a later date. In reference to education, therefore, the reward comes later. As there is a close correlation between education and occupation, the task would also be one of bridging the two, that is, why does education go with occupations?

2. Parental Involvement. Presently, in Nova Scotia, Indians are not represented on Provincial school boards. From the point of view of increasing parental involvement, representation is a necessary step. However, representation on school boards is not a sufficient step. For one thing, only a few parents

at any one time can act on a school board. The parents themselves must take an active part in their children's education. Once beyond the legal requirements for school, education becomes the sole responsibility of the parents. Parents must realize, therefore, that the ultimate answers lie within their grasp and their grasp only. The Indian Affairs Branch can only help to finance education. The branch and other agencies cannot set a child's goals or give him the needed encouragement. Only parents can do this. Said another way, nothing can be done if the Indians do not want it themselves.[16]

Parental invlovement can take many forms other than attending meetings, school plays, parents' nights and so on. Parental involvement can take more subtle forms also than just talking about school or occupations. Parents can show interest in their children by making sure the homework is done, setting aside a study time, making sure the child is not disturbed while doing his work, and other ways that could arise within an interaction situation that would be rewarding to the child.[17]

---

[16] G. K. Gooderham, "Prospect" in The Education of the Indian Children in Canada. A Symposium written by members of Indian Affairs Education Division, with comments by the Indian Peoples. Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1965. p. 96-97

[17] It is interesting to note that the Indians themselves have made the following statement regarding the large drop out rate: "No other ethnic or minority group has better opportunity to get educated in Canada than the Indian People. Since the golden opportunity and educational facilities are so readily available and we, unfortunately, are not getting results, there definitely is something wrong with our educational system as it pertains to the Indian. Report of the workshop on problem-solving (Indian Community Leaders), Fort Cumberland Hotel, Amherst, N.S., 6-10 January, 1969. p. 2

The present study would indicate that the problem may not lie with the educational system alone but is an Indian parents' problem.

3. Employment for Parents. The study pointed out a marked relationship with parental employment. For instance, as parental employment increased from no work to full time work, there was also an increase in educational aspirations, occupations, parental encouragement, parents as significant others and so forth. These relationships did not obtain for the non-Indian sample. Therefore, if increased employment leads to desirable consequences in regards to their children, it is all the more reason for not only seeking employment for Indians but seeking full time employment. The responsibility for employment does not lie solely with any one person or agency. The Indian parent himself, if he realizes the responsibility to his children should do all he can to seek such employment. Additionally, agencies such as the Indian Affairs Branch and Industry should also do their part.

4. Teacher and School Involvement. A relatively small percentage (18 percent for Indians and 36 percent for non-Indians) of Indians named teachers as significant others. The reasons for this may be many. One reason may be a matter of social distance and thus creates a communication barrier between Indian and teacher. Another reason may be discrimination either real or perceived. By real discrimination is meant an actual discriminatory act whereby the teacher and the Indian student both know that it was discriminatory. Perceived discrimination may be the more important of the two. A teacher may do something whereby the Indian child perceives the act as

discriminatory even though it was not meant to be so by the teacher. However, if the child perceives it as discrimination, then it is real to that child. Teachers must, therefore, be alert in not committing themselves in such ways that the act may be misconstrued.

Teachers must realize also that Indians are different - different in the sense that Indians belong to a different culture, a different social system that can have a whole set of values and ways of looking at the world that are quite different from the non-Indians. The study has pointed out that the Indian child tends to be an underachiever not only in perceived ability but also in actual academic performance (the grade point average.) However, before placing the label of underachiever, one must ask why and look into his culture for reasons.

In regard to the school, other methods may have to be devised to attempt to increase parental involvement in school matters. The old methods of attracting parents, particularly in relation to Indians,may have to be questioned, e.g. the conduct of a meeting (either business or social) or even looking into the possibility of bussing parents to the school if necessary.

5. Significant others. A person can have a range of significant others. The study did point out, particularly in reference to parents and teachers, that they did not always predict attitudes or behavior. In other words, a person may be a significant other to a child and never know it. Therefore,

if a person suspects that he or she may be that person, he or she can play an influential role in the child's life. In reference to teachers, social distance can be a detriment. Thus, it is up to the teacher to break the distance so that the child can better communicate.

6. Federal versus Provincial schools. The results of the study showed that correlations favored Federal schools over Provincial schools. This in itself is not a reason for the continuation of the Federal school system. The study, however, did point out that just to integrate Indians in Provincial schools without parental involvement may be detrimental to the child and would be detrimental in several ways. For one, the child may drop out of school when he or she did not really want to. Also, unless there is more involvement, the child could be very unhappy with the situation and thus create a psychologically imbalancing situation that can have consequences in his academic performance and social relationship with other children. The social relationships that can occur within an integrated school can have benefits to both Indians and non-Indians. Children can learn of each other's culture, their desires, hopes and goals in life. An integrated system can thus be a fruitful experience for all concerned. But it must not be left on the reliance of the children themselves. The parents have a role to play with their children, the school has a role to play in the integrated system (within the school) and the parents and school working together also have another role to play.

7. Research implications. There are a number of research implications that have arisen within the present study.

The study would lend itself to an experimental design -- a before-after design. The benchmark or before measure could essentially be the present study. Programs of parental involvement could be implemented and at some future date the same students re-measured to determine the degree of change that has occurred.

There are other studies of the survey-research type that would also be useful. One study could be to investigate in depth the degree of discrimination, how discrimination manifests itself in schools and its consequences.

Other research could also look into the nature of parental involvement in greater depth. For example, even though parents may be designated as significant others, to what degree are they significant and the exact nature of the significance. In other words, are parents to an Indian child significant others in regards to matters educational or to matters of Indian culture.

Another area of study would be the nature of employment -- why does the relationship with parental employment obtain? What is it that if parents work full time there is an increase in aspirations and other concepts.

The present study contained measures (e.g. self-concept) that were not used because the data were in such a form as to lend themselves to a higher level of statistical analysis.

A secondary analysis of the present study using a more selected range of variables (including self-concept) will be done in the future. The present study used a series of two-way analyses. Specifically, only two variables or concepts were used at a time and controlled on race. The future secondary analysis will look at some of the same variables but include more than two concepts at a time -- multivariate analysis. Mutlivariate analysis affords a method by which several variables are seen as working together.

Appendix A

Table 1A. Age and School Grade Composition

Age	I* %	NI* %	Grade	I %	NI %
11	4.5	8.4	6	35.4	16.5
12	16.1	11.5	7	22.8	11.1
13	18.4	16.0	8	16.1	17.6
14	19.3	18.6	9	8.5	19.6
15	18.0	15.8	10	2.7	7.8
16	14.8	14.7	11	3.6	17.0
17	6.3	9.0	12	-	-
18	2.2	3.3	7A**	4.5	5.7
19	X	1.8	8A	4.9	2.3
20	0	X	9A	1.3	2.3
Total %	99.6	99.1		99.8	99.9
No. of Cases	223	818		223	818

* I and N.I. refers to Indian, Non-Indian.

**"A" adjusted grades.

X = less than one percent.

Table 2A. Sex Composition of the Two Samples

	Indian %	Non-Indian %
Males	45	54
Females	55	46
Totals	100	100
No. of Cases	223	818

Appendix B
Questionnaire

INSTRUCTIONS

Please read carefully the directions on each part of the questionnaire before you answer.

If you have any difficulties, please raise you hand. Somebody will give you help.

The answers you give will remain secret. Your teacher and your school principal will not see your answers. In fact only the person doing this study will ever see your answers.

The questions are not like a school exam. All the answers you give are correct. Just put down the best way you feel about things.

Read the whole question and all the choices before answering.

Please use a pencil. If you wish to change an answer you can easily do so.

Put a check mark ✓ or X in the box of your choice.

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

0 1
C1 C2

0 1
C3 C4

C5 C6

C7 C8 C9

C10 C11 C12

C13 C14 C15

C16

C17 C18

YOUTH STUDY

NAME: ______________________ ______________________ ______________________
Last Name First Name Middle Name

1. Your present age: ____________ 19 20

2. Sex (Check) Male ☐
Female ☐ 21

3. What grade are you in? ______________ 22 23

4. Does your father work (substitute mother if she is supporting you.)

Full Time.

Part Time.

Not at all.

C24

5. What kind of work does your father do? (or mother if she is the person supporting you?) Even if he or she does not work all the time, put down what work it is.

____

____ C25 C26

AFTER YOU HAVE FINISHED THIS PAGE, PLEASE WAIT QUIETLY UNTIL EVERYONE HAS FINISHED. YOU WILL GET INSTRUCTIONS ABOUT THE NEXT QUESTION.

6. There are some people who are very important to us. What they think of us counts a lot. Who are the persons whose opinions of you are most important to you. -- Name them (you don't have to fill in all the lines).

NAMES	WHO IS THIS PERSON?	
		27 28
		29 30
		31 32
		33 34
		35 36
		37 38

Check the box in front of each statement which best tells your feelings. (Check only one box for each question.)

7. How do you rate yourself in school ability compared with your close friends? Don't forget, it's what you feel your ability is. (Check only one box.)

☐ I am the best.

☐ I am above average.

☐ I am average.

☐ I am below average.

☐ I am the poorest. C39

8. How do you rate yourself in school ability compared with those in your class at school? (Check only one box.)

☐ I am among the best.

☐ I am above average.

☐ I am average.

☐ I am below average.

☐ I am among the poorest.

40

9. How important to you are the grades you get in school? (Check only one box.)

☐ Very important.

☐ Important.

☐ Not very important.

☐ Grades don't matter to me at all.

41

Go back to question 9. Why did you choose the box you just checked off? Say something in your own words why grades are important or not important to you.

____

____

C42 C43

11. If you were free to go as far as you wanted to go in school, how far would you like to go? (Check one box only.)

☐ I'd like to quit right now.

☐ I'd like to continue in high school for awhile.

☐ I'd like to graduate from high school.

☐ I'd like to go to secretarial school or trade school.

☐ I'd like to go to college for awhile.

☐ I'd like to graduate from college.

☐ I'd like to do post graduate work beyond college. C44

12. Sometime what we would like to do isn't the same as what we expect to do. How far in school do you expect you really will go? (Check one box only.)

☐ Quit as soon as possible.

☐ Finish elementary school.

☐ Do a couple of years of high school.

☐ Finish high school.

☐ Go to secretarial or trade school.

☐ Graduate from college.

☐ Go beyond college for post graduate work. C45

Please answer the following questions as you think your parents would answer them. If you are not living with your parents, answer for the family with whom you are living.

Check the box best answering your feelings.

13. How do you think your parents would rate your school ability compared with other students your age? (Check one box only.)

☐ Among the best.

☐ Above average.

☐ Average.

☐ Below average.

☐ Among the poorest.

C46

14. Do you think that your parents would say you have the ability to complete college. (Check one box only.)

☐ Yes, definitely.

☐ Yes, perhaps.

☐ Not sure, either way.

☐ Perhaps not.

☐ Definitely not at all.

C47

15. How far do you think your parents wish you would go in school? (Check one box only.)

☐ They wish I would quit as soon as I can.

☐ They wish I would graduate from high school.

☐ They wish I would go to secretarial or trade school.

☐ They wish I would go to college for awhile.

☐ They wish I would graduate from college.

☐ They wish I would go and do post graduate work.

C48

16. How far do you think your parents expect you to go in school? (Check one box only.)

☐ They expect me to quit as soon as I can.

☐ They expect me to continue in high school for awhile.

☐ They expect me to graduate from high school.

☐ They expect me to go to secretarial or trade school.

☐ They expect me to go to college for awhile.

☐ They expect me to graduate from college.

☐ They expect me to do post graduate work.

C49

17. How important is it to your parents that you get mostly 60% (or a "B" or better? (Check one box only.)

☐ Very important.

☐ Important.

☐ Not particularly important.

☐ My grades don't matter to my parents at all. C50

18. How well are your parents informed about what you are doing in school work? (Check one box only.)

☐ My parents always like to talk over my school work.

☐ My parents sometimes like to talk over my school work.

☐ My parents seldom or practically never talk over my school work.

☐ It doesn't matter to my parents one way or the other what I'm doing in school. C51

Here are a few more questions about you personally. Choose the box that best fits your feelings. Here is an example of one question:

"I certainly feel useless at times."

☐ Strongly agree.

☐ Agree some.

☐ Disagree some.

☐ Strongly disagree.

DO NOT BOTHER
TO FILL THIS ONE
OUT.

If you strongly agree that you fel useless at times, check the box with strongly agree.

If you disagree strongly, check that box.

If you agree some, check that box.

If you disagree some that you feel useless at times, then check that box.

19. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

☐ Strongly agree.

☐ Agree some.

☐ Disagree some.

☐ Strongly disagree.

C52

20. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.

☐ Strongly agree.
☐ Agree some.
☐ Disagree some.
☐ Strongly disagree. $\overline{C53}$

21. I am able to do things as well as most people.

☐ Strongly agree.
☐ Agree some.
☐ Disagree some.
☐ Strongly disagree. $\overline{C54}$

22. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

☐ Strongly agree.
☐ Agree some.
☐ Disagree some.
☐ Strongly disagree. $\overline{C55}$

23. I feel that I am not as clever as some of my friends.

☐ Strongly agree.

☐ Agree some.

☐ Disagree some.

☐ Strongly disagree. C56

24. Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me.

☐ Strongly agree.

☐ Agree some.

☐ Disagree some. C57

☐ Strongly disagree.

25. I'd like to have the feeling that comes from knowing that I'm not too different from others.

☐ Strongly agree.

☐ Agree some.

☐ Disagree some.

☐ Strongly disagree. C58

Here are some questions about what you plan to do in the future.

---

26. The occupations or jobs which I have thought about going into are:
Write down one or more occupations or jobs - don't worry about the spelling.

1. ______________________________ $\overline{\text{C59}}$ $\overline{\text{C60}}$
2. ______________________________ $\overline{\text{C61}}$ $\overline{\text{C62}}$
3. ______________________________ $\overline{\text{C63}}$ $\overline{\text{C64}}$

27. The occupation or job that I plan to follow is:

____

☐ Check here if you have not yet decided on a job. $\overline{\text{C65}}$ $\overline{\text{C66}}$

28. About my choice of a job:

☐ I feel sure that my mind is made up.

☐ I'm not too sure but I think my mind is made up.

☐ I have given a job little thought.

$\overline{\text{C67}}$

29. For the occupation I have chosen, I think my ability is:

☐ Very much above average.

☐ A little above average.

☐ Just average.

☐ A little below average.

☐ Very much below average.

☐ I don't know because I have not yet made a choice. $\overline{C68}$

30. Compared with my friends, I think my chances for getting ahead in the job of my choice are:

☐ Very much above average.

☐ A little above average.

☐ Just average.

☐ A little below average.

☐ Very much below average. $\overline{C69}$

31. In the occupation I have chosen, I can expect help in getting started from:

☐ My mother or father.

☐ From relatives.

☐ From friends.

☐ From no one.

☐ Some other person.

☐ Don't know. $\overline{C70}$

32. About your future job - has your father or mother:

☐ Given you encouragement.

☐ Has not encouraged or discouraged me.

☐ Has discouraged me.

$\overline{\text{C71}}$

33. Please write in your own words a short sentence telling what going to this school (the one you are now in) means to you.

____

____

$\overline{\text{C72}}$ $\overline{\text{C73}}$

WE THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR HELPING US.